



THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY

Vol. 12
1960

SPECIAL FEATURES

SHIFT SYSTEM IN SCHOOLS

Samuel Mathai

WHAT IS INTERNATIONAL TERMINOLOGY?

Yadu Vanshi

CONSTITUTIONAL OBLIGATIONS IN EDUCATION

Zahiruddin Malik

PROVISION OF SCHOOL PLACES

J. P. Naik

INTRODUCING COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION

B. B. Samant

HINDI AS THE OFFICIAL LANGUAGE OF INDIA

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ROLE OF ATTENDANCE OFFICERS IN COMPULSORY
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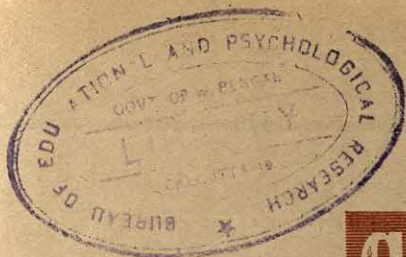
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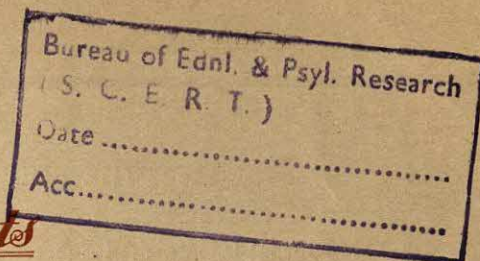
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Introducing This Issue

The most live educational topic that is currently exercising the minds of our educationists is the provision of free compulsory Primary education for all children of the age-group 6-14. This, as we all know, is a constitutional directive whose implementation has had to be staggered in the light of economic realities. The drive, however, has gathered a fresh momentum and educationists in the country are now anxious to forge ahead and effect the introduction of free compulsory Primary education for children of the age-group 6-11 within the end of the third Plan period. In whatever way one may look at it, one is impressed by the colossal nature of the task. In terms of money alone, the total amount of estimated expenditure, during the third Plan is Rs. 300 crores. Then, there are problems of administration; the provision of the required number of schools and of trained teaching staff; the mode of compulsion, whether it has to be by legislation alone or by judicious persuasion also. These and many others call for some thinking. To these questions we have in this issue largely devoted our attention.

A factual analysis, based on a close and reasoned study of the problem and realistic calculations, is given by J.P. Naik in "Provision of School Places in Classes I to V". The requirement of the third Plan, according to him, may be taken to be about three times that of the first Plan and twice that of the second Plan. It is more than possible that we may just have to go without the actual number of schools and trained staff that will be required. In which case, clearly, some practical alternatives may have to be found. Samuel Mathai

discusses the use of the shift system. He points out that driven by necessity we shall have to make use of it, but emphasises the imperative need to jettison it the moment the need for such improvisation ceases to exist. Zahiruddin Malik, while explaining the constitutional obligations in education sounds a note of warning that in our proposed drive to spread literacy among the millions, we should not lose sight of quality.

With his rich and practical experience of the educational survey of India, B.B. Samant shares with us a few interesting thoughts on the entire question of introducing compulsory Primary education. He calls attention to the helpful hints that one could take from the Educational Survey of India in the economic planning of the schools that will be required in this national drive. Which enforces the need to revise our educational survey at appropriate intervals. Then we have a contribution on the "Role of Attendance Officers in Compulsory Education" by J.N. Mathur, which is of close relevance to the main theme.

There are two items of special interest in this issue. One is on "What is International Terminology?" by Yadu Vanshi, in which the writer advocates the adoption of international scientific and technical terminology into Indian languages while utilising the resources of our own languages and preserving their essential structure and genius. The other is a forceful statement by Raghu Vira in which he makes, with the ease of a scholar in his line, a plea for the adoption of Hindi as the official language of India by 1965 and suggests methods by which this can be achieved.

The Use of a

Shift System

in

Schools

THE TERM "SHIFT SYSTEM" is used in factories in which, in order to achieve the maximum production, workers are employed in separate shifts of six or eight hours a day, beginning in the morning and going on till night or sometimes even all night. The use of the shift system enables maximum utilisation of the equipment and facilities of a factory for the production of whatever it is that the factory is established to produce. In a factory such a system is feasible because all that is needed there is a sufficient number of workers to form a complete shift of six to eight hours. It is, of course, understood that the equipment of the factory will be in continuous use throughout the various shifts employed in the course of a working day. Each shift of workers is completely free after it has done its work. The manner in which they may utilise the remaining hours of the day is entirely their own affair. In a shift system in a factory the concern of the proprietor of the factory is, of course, mainly the things produced. The workers are only means to a production.

In recent times the phrase "shift system" has been used in connection with educational institutions also. The idea in such cases is to utilise the available school facilities to the maximum so that they serve in the education of a maximum number of children. The problem of applying a shift system in schools arises in a situation in which a community or a nation has to make a somewhat sudden spurt forward in increasing educational opportunity. In a country like India where at the moment less than 50 per cent of the children between the ages of six and eleven go to school, it is easy to see that if we were to introduce universal compulsory education there would be need for a tremendous increase in

the number of school buildings. Such an increase must eventually come. But if it was decided to wait till buildings were constructed before attempting to put all children to school, the process of universal education would be greatly delayed. Therefore, the suggestion has naturally been made that a shift system could be used in the existing school buildings so that one batch of pupils might go to school in the early hours of the morning and another batch perhaps in the afternoon.

Prima facie there is something to be said for using a shift system in schools in the special situation in which India or indeed any country like India finds itself today. There is a tremendous shortage of school buildings in India and whatever steps we may take to increase the number of suitable school buildings it will take a considerable number of years before we could reach anything like a saturation point. Instead of waiting for that time and relating the spread of education to the building activity, there is a good case for increasing the intake of pupils in our schools by adopting a shift system. It must, of course, be borne in mind that a building alone is not sufficient for organising a school. Teachers are needed, books are needed and perhaps a certain amount of equipment is needed even in the simplest of schools. But confining ourselves at the moment mainly to the problem of space and assuming that if a place can be found in which children can gather and be seated and where classes can be held, teachers will be found, the case for a shift system seems fairly strong.

Attendant Problems

But in thinking of a shift system, there are many other aspects of the problem to which some attention must be given. Ideally a school is a place where not only classes are held but a great many other activities, curricular and extra-curricular, are carried on. Indeed in a good school the buildings and premises should be in use for the larger part of the day with classes, games, discussions, hobbies and things of that

SAMUEL MATHAI, M.A. (*Bombay and Oxford*), Secretary, University Grants Commission, New Delhi

kind. The danger in using a shift system is that the managers of the school become so anxious to get rid of one shift of pupils so that the next shift can come in that the educational activity might become a rather hurried and cramped process. This is something that must be always borne in mind.

When a shift system is advocated, we think of the same management taking care of different batches of students. When that is the situation there is always a temptation on the part of the management to over-work at least some of the teachers, and perhaps to over-use the resources and facilities of the school. Even such matters as keeping the building and premises in a neat and clean condition may be overlooked. A shift system may work with reasonable satisfaction if the separate shifts are treated as wholly independent schools with completely different teachers and different principals and with sufficient space of time between the two or more shifts so that there is a feeling of elbow-room for each of the shifts.

A particular aspect of the facilities of a school being overstrained is the use of the library. In a normal school with a manageable number of students there would be a library of a certain size which could be used by the teachers and pupils in the usual way. Now when there is a shift system in a school the same library, meant perhaps for one normal batch of students, will have to do duty for another batch or more than one batch. In such a situation the library facilities are likely to prove inadequate. Of course in the lower stages of a school the library does not perhaps play a very important part but certainly in the higher classes of a school the library ought to be important and reading habits should be developed by a school; and this can hardly be well done when the school has to be hurriedly cleared of one shift of students to make room for another.

Problems also arise with regard to use of the playing fields and games facilities of a school. All times of the day are not equally suited for playing some kinds of games. It is, of course, conceivable that

one batch of students can be made to play certain games in the early hours of the morning and another batch can play games in the evening. But this is not altogether satisfactory; and if the evening is the best time to play games, then quite obviously, if there are two or more shifts in a school, the games facilities are likely to be over-worked.

One could think of the *pros* and *cons* of the shift system in great detail and it would be difficult to make a balance-sheet, as it were, either in favour of the shift system or against the shift system merely by enumerating the arguments for and against it. I think it is a reasonable position to take that a shift system should be resorted to only in periods of acute shortage of space and that ideally a school should be a self-contained community of students and teachers who know one another and care for one another and who love their school and like to spend the best part of the day in and around it. The atmosphere of a factory is never a desirable one in a school. So a shift system should not be discussed in abstract terms. Whether or not, a shift system should be introduced in a school should always be a question of practical politics in a concrete situation. When the need of the day is to find places for a rapidly growing number of pupils a shift system may temporarily be resorted to. But the solution of the problem of education of a country is not to be sought through this method but always by building more schools or increasing the accommodation in some at least of the existing schools so that children can be taught in an atmosphere of leisure in conditions of reasonable comfort.

A Passing Measure

In the particular situation in our country when we have proposed to introduce free and compulsory education for at least the younger of our children, the question of a shift system becomes one of practical urgency. In many of the States in India, the number of children between the ages of six and eleven who go to school is considerably less than 50 per cent. There are

many factors that lead to this low school attendance. One of these factors is undoubtedly the absence of an adequate number of schools. Many of the schools in the more rural areas of our country are even now held in what are no more than mere sheds. If, therefore, we take immediate steps to introduce compulsory education, there will be need for a spate of buildings. But it will be some time before we can put up even ramshackle buildings in sufficient numbers to accommodate all children who will be compelled to go to school. It seems, therefore, an unavoidable conclusion that wherever there are buildings of any sort, as far as possible the shift system will have to be introduced at least as a temporary measure to enable us to put all our children to school. But it must be hoped that the construction of more buildings will be simultaneously taken

in hand so that the shift system can be given up as early as possible.

In many of our villages and small towns there will be no need for a shift system as the number of pupils will not be very large. In the big cities and larger towns the shift system may have to be resorted to to enable more children to be educated, and as there may be difficulty in obtaining suitable sites for new buildings, the shift system may have to be retained for some length of time. But a few schools cannot serve large numbers of children even through a shift system, as many children will have to make long journeys to travel between home and school. So even in the cities the need for more school buildings cannot long be put off. "One school and one body of school students" is the desirable arrangement always to be arrived at.

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What is International Terminology ?

IN THE CONTEXT OF DEVELOPING an adequate vocabulary of Science and Technology for modern Indian languages, the phrase 'International Terminology' has been used again and again for the last 20 years or so. As far back as 1940, the Central Advisory Board of Education at its fifth meeting considered the question of adopting a uniform scientific terminology for all the languages of India and appointed a Scientific Terminology Committee to consider the question in greater detail. This Committee recommended that "the scientific terminology adopted for India should assimilate wherever possible those terms which have already secured general international acceptance".¹

Subsequently, the matter was considered again by a Reference Board set up by the Central Advisory Board of Education. This Reference Board met in 1947 and reiterated the stand taken by the Central Advisory Board of Education regarding the adoption of international terms into Indian languages. The opinion of the various provincial Governments was elicited on this problem and they generally agreed with the recommendations of the Reference Board.³ The report of this Reference Board was also considered in 1948 by a Special Committee of Vice-Chancellors of the Indian Universities which had been set up by the Central Education Minister to consider the question of the medium of instruction for higher education. This Committee also confirmed the previous recommendations of the Central Advisory Board of Education that as far as possible the scientific terminology used in the international world should be employed.⁴ In 1948-49, the

University Education Commission went thoroughly into the question of a standard scientific vocabulary for Indian languages which are ultimately to become the media of instruction for all higher education in the country. After a full and very detailed consideration of all aspects of the problem, the Commission strongly advocated the adoption of international scientific and technical terms with the proviso that the terms so adopted "should be properly assimilated, their pronunciation should be adapted to the phonetic system of the Indian languages and their spellings fixed in accordance with the sound symbols of Indian scripts."⁵ Similar views regarding the adoption of the international terminology for Indian languages have also been expressed from time to time by many eminent individual scientists and scholars of the country. Notable among these were Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar, Dr. J. C. Ghosh and Dr. Birbal Sahni. Dr. J. C. Luthra, Principal of the College of Agriculture, Banaras Hindu University, in an article published in 1950 asserted that "taking a broad view of the international background of academic relationship with other countries the terminology of technical subjects such as Biological and Physical Sciences, Medicine, Engineering, etc., must not be disturbed."⁶ Dr. Ishwar Topa, Director of the Department of Translation and Publication, Osmania University, in a published note submitted to the Conference of Vice-Chancellors in 1950 said that "in order to standardise Hindi as the medium of University instruction and of examination, it is in the fitness of things primarily to determine terminology and nomenclature of

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(1) Proceedings of the Sixth meeting of the C.A.B.E. 1941, Appendix, II, pp. 71, para 12 (II).

(2) Proceedings of the Fifth meeting of the C.A.B.E. 1949, Appendix B(b), pp. 39, para 4.

(3) *Ibid* pp. 41-42.

(4) Report of the University Education Commission, Vol. I, p. 312.

(5) *Ibid* p. 315.

(6) *Amrita Bazar Patrika* dated 9th August, 1950.

international usage The retention of international scientific terminology in its original or basic form modified according to the philological laws governing the Hindi language is a desideratum and it will help by enriching Hindi as a national language."⁷ Shri S. G. M. Ramanujam, Vice-Chancellor, Annamalai University, was similarly in favour of the adoption of international nomenclature for scientific terms.⁸

The basic idea behind this recommendation for the adoption of international terminology into Indian languages is that since practically all scientific and technical advance in modern times has taken place in the West and the bulk of scientific and technical literature today exists in European languages, and since among these languages themselves there is a strong movement for the adoption of a uniform scientific and technical vocabulary, the Indian languages should also fall in line with the European languages so far as scientific and technical vocabulary is concerned so that they can keep abreast of the times and establish close touch with the modern world, failing which the level of their intelligentsia is bound to remain backward. The University Education Commission was very emphatic on this point. India's position, it pointed out, was not high among the nations of the world in the field of scientific education and research. We cannot shut our eyes to this backwardness of ours and there is very urgent need for speeding up the process by which the Indian languages can be made an adequate and effective media for higher education. But the process cannot be speeded up if we set about translating millions of scientific and technical terms which exist today and to which thousands of new terms are being added each year. The adoption of these terms is the only practical way whereby the Indian languages can equip themselves within a reasonably short time for the new responsibilities which they are being called upon to shoulder. Moreover, science has always been universal and is

increasingly becoming so. Already, a very large amount of scientific vocabulary is shared in common by all advanced languages of the world. Science is not parochial or national. It is universal. Its advance depends upon the conclusions of scientific workers the world over. Scientific information must be easily available to all and must spread rapidly if human progress is not to be retarded. Under the urge of this universalism, scientific vocabulary is fast becoming international. The Indian languages, therefore, could ill-afford to cut themselves away from this world trend and their own self-interest demands that they should adopt and assimilate all terms of international usage.⁹

This view of the University Education Commission found support among practically all scientists in the country and also among a large number of linguists and scholars. The consensus of their opinion was that it would not be desirable to set aside entirely international terms of long usage and create a new glossary which besides being quite unintelligible even to our own students would have no international contexts and no associational bearings. International scientific terminology by virtue of its highly technical contexts conveys specifically an untranslatable connotation and a highly specialised sense. All modern sciences are a unified co-ordinated activity in the domain of the human investigation in which the scientists of all countries are engaged in solving problems with uniform patterns of terminological data and equipment.

India, though independent, has therefore to get the benefit of their scientific advance. From the linguistic point of view also, the retention of international scientific terminology will help the Indian languages to develop and enrich their vocabulary and will also enable them, as languages of scientific thought and expression, to establish a living contact with modern progressive knowledge. Then again, from a strictly utilitarian and practical point of

(7) Published note submitted to the Vice-Chancellors of Hindi speaking areas.

(8) Report of the U.E.C. Vol. I, p. 312.

(9) *Ibid* Vol. I, p. 313.

view, the adoption of international terminology is highly desirable because all students of science in this country would in any case have to learn this terminology in order to keep in touch with world developments in the field of science. Why then burden them with a double set of terms which, apart from sentimental reasons, would serve no useful purpose whatever ?

It is, therefore, not surprising that when in 1950, in pursuance of the recommendations of the Committee of Vice-Chancellors, the Central Ministry of Education set up a high power Board of Scientific Terminology to co-ordinate and supervise the work of the evolution of a standard scientific vocabulary for Indian languages, it accepted the view, so consistently expressed by all competent bodies and individuals that international terms should be adopted in the Indian languages and should be assimilated to be the phonetic genius of the latter.¹⁰ The same view was also accepted and advocated by the Official Language Commission set up in 1955¹¹ and by the Parliamentary Committee which examined the Commission's recommendations and which has very recently submitted its own report to Parliament.

This policy of accepting terms of international usage has been followed by a number of other languages also which have had to meet, like our own languages, the challenge of modern scientific advance. Notable among these languages are—Arabic, Persian, Japanese and Indonesian, all of which have adopted international terminology on a large scale. The example of Arabic is very significant because, like Sanskrit, it has an infinite capacity for making new terms out of basic roots which can express almost any concept or object. Yet the progressive Arabic nations have not gone about coining new terms, but have preferred to adopt the vocabulary in common usage in the world of science. The example of Japanese, on the other hand, is very interesting for its remarkable

power of assimilation of loan words. Apart from international scientific terms, it has extensively borrowed English terms of American origin and has so thoroughly assimilated them that they are hardly recognisable as loan words. A few interesting examples are: 'burousu' (blouse), burashi (brush), Burokku (block); Bakureito (bakelite), chokoretio (chocolate), Kabela (cable); Korera (cholera).¹³

What exactly then is this 'International Terminology' the adoption of which has been so consistently advocated by every one ? The Central Ministry of Education to whom the work of actual evolution of a standard scientific vocabulary for Indian languages was entrusted had to find an answer to this question in the very beginning of this work since the adoption of international terminology was one of its basic terms of reference. But the Ministry soon found that on this question there was a wide divergence of views. There were those who regarded every English scientific technical or semi-technical term as international and declared that any attempt to translate these terms was foredoomed to failure and would very seriously affect standards of scientific and technical learning in the country. The University Education Commission itself has lent support to this view when it has said in its report that the "terms used in English, because of the international position of English, may for all practical purposes be regarded as international."¹⁴ Even the late Dr. Amar Nath Jha, a strong protagonist of Hindi, in his note submitted to the Scientific Terminology Committee in 1940 had said that "English terms are practically the same in every European language and a knowledge of these enables one to follow the scientific books and journals published abroad".¹⁵ Dr. Mahajani drew attention to the distinction between science and literature, and expressed the view that for higher education in science subjects the language to be used should be one of the international

(10) Minutes of the first meeting of the Board of Scientific Terminology, 11th December 1950.

(11) Report of the Official language Commission pp. 62-63.

(12) Report of the Committee of Parliament on official language p. 31.

(13) See Kenkyusha's New Japanese-English Dictionary, Tokyo. 1954.

(14) Report of the U.E.C., Vol. I, p. 313. Para 32.

(15) Report of the Sixth meeting of the C.A.B.E. p. 97.

languages—say English.¹⁶ At the other extreme were those who proclaimed that there was no such thing as international terminology and anybody who advocated its use was merely a propagandist for English. They also expressed their fears that any wholesale importation of English terms into Indian languages would spell complete ruin for the latter. Actual investigations have, however, revealed that the truth, as usual in such cases, lies somewhere between these two extremes. There is no doubt that English has come to occupy a predominant position among what may be called international languages. This is chiefly because of the new status which the United States of America has acquired in the world of science no less than in the world of Politics. Nearly 50 per cent of the literature of science is today published in English. For any student of science, therefore, a knowledge of English is of great importance and it is interesting to note that even in the U.S.S.R., the study

of English is given very high importance particularly for science students. Yet, the total number of English speaking persons in the world is not substantially larger than the number of people speaking say Hindi in India, and the number of people who speak, say, Chinese is much greater than both. This fact has to be given due regard when we assess the real position of English among the languages of the world. Then again, a fairly large number of English scientific and technical terms are confined only to English, and even such languages as French and German to which English is most closely allied have their own different equivalents for these terms. The terminology of Shipping is a case in point. All these three languages have a very rich and highly developed technical vocabulary in shipping which, however, has developed to a large extent quite independently in each language. A few examples will prove this point :—

<i>English</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>German</i>
Hull	Coque	Rumpf
Hatch	Parman	Luke
Gunwale	Plat-bord	Dollbaum
How	Avant	Bug
Stern	Arriere	Gatt
Porthole	Hublot	Scheitenfenster
Yard	Vergue	Rahe
Strake	Virure	Gang
Frame	Couple	Spant

It follows, therefore, that all English scientific and technical terminology cannot *ipso facto* be regarded as international.

Nevertheless, it is also an undeniable fact that there does exist a huge vocabulary of science which is used in common by the major languages of the world and this vocabulary is being continuously and rapidly added to both in the normal course of scientific development and by the deliberate efforts of a large number of national and international agencies. The University Education Commission gave the names of

some of these agencies like the American Chemical Society, the National Research Council and the International Union of Chemistry. There is also an International Association of Scientific Nomenclature which publishes periodical lists of terms that have been accepted by most languages for representing certain scientific objects and concepts. Somewhat more specialised agencies are the Permanent International Association of Road Congresses (Paris); the Permanent International Association of Sea Congresses (Paris); the International

(16) Report of the U.E.C. Vol. I, p. 312.

Commission of Illumination (Paris); the International Electro-technical Commission (Paris); the World Meteorological Organisation (Geneva); the International Telecommunication Bureau, (Berne); the International Civil Aviation Organisation (Montreal); the Documentation Committee of the Advisory Group for Aeronautical Research and Development (Paris). In all, there are more than 50 National and International societies which are engaged in this work. The U.N. Secretariat has a terminological unit which from time to time issues glossaries, inter-connecting some or all the official languages. Similar units are also attached to Unesco at Paris and the FAO at Rome. The latter has several published glossaries to its credit, e.g. A Rice Trade glossary in six languages, an Illustrated Glossary of Rice Producing Machines in three languages and a multilingual vocabulary of Soil Science. The Unesco has been encouraging and giving financial assistance to work in this field by a number of societies. Some of the notable publications brought out by these societies with the financial assistance of Unesco are: the Illustrated Technical Dictionary of Sea Terms in six languages; the International Lighting Vocabulary in three languages; the International Electro-technical Vocabulary in six languages; the International Traffic Engineering Vocabulary in six languages and the Technical Dictionary of Road Terms in six languages.

In addition to these official efforts a number of bilingual and multilingual glossaries of scientific and technical terms have also been published in recent years by private agencies. Some of the more important of such publications are Elsevier's multilingual dictionaries¹⁷ in five to ten languages relating to automobiles (8 lan-

ages) amplifiers, transmitters and receivers (6 languages); cinema, sound and music (6 languages), chemical sciences (8 languages), electronics and wave guides (6 languages), Industrial Agriculture (6 languages), Meteorology and Control (6 languages), Nuclear Science and Technology (6 languages), Pharmacy (6 languages), Television, Radar and Antennas (6 languages), Medicine (5 languages), Rubber (10 languages), Textiles (6 languages), wood (7 languages); Cassel's International Dictionary of Mechanics and Engineering in six languages;¹⁸ and Langenscheidt's multilingual dictionaries on general subjects. Even though these dictionaries and glossaries do not include the vast bulk of terms relating to chemical compounds and binomial names of plants and animals which are of practically world wide usage, yet, even a casual glance at them shows conclusively that quite apart from names of chemical compounds and binomial terms relating to Botany and Zoology, there is a very large body of terms which is shared in common by many languages of the world. A specimen statistical check of two of these glossaries reveals that from 40 to 60 per cent of terms included therein are shared in common by three or more languages while at least 30 per cent of terms are common to six or more languages. It is quite evident, therefore, that international terminology is not just a myth. It is very much a fact and the volume of this vocabulary is steadily growing.

Let us now try to analyse this international terminology a little further. For purposes of illustration we shall take six representative languages viz., English, French, German, Russian, Japanese and Arabic.²⁰ Broadly the International Voca-

(17) Published by the Elsevier Publishing Company, Amstardorm, London, N. York, Princeton.

(18) Published by the Cassel and Co. Ltd., London.

(19) Published by the Langenscheidt KG., Berlin-Schouberg, Bahnstrasse 29, 30.

(20) The language dictionaries consulted for the purposes of this article are :-

- (a) Cassel's French Dictionary.
- (b) Webel's Technical Dictionary, German-English.
- (c) Wildhagen's German-English Dictionary.
- (d) Russian-English Scientific and Technical Dictionary, International Univ. Press, N. York.
- (e) A New English-Russian Dictionary by M. Golovinsky, David Mackay Co., N. York.
- (f) Elias' Modern Dictionary; English-Arabic, Elias' Modern Press, Cairo.
- (g) Kenkynsha's Japanese-English Dictionary, Kenkynsha, Tokyo.

bulary of science can be classified under the following:—

(a) *Units of measurement used in scientific work*: The names of these units were given at different times by different persons in different countries. But by now

they have been universally adopted by all languages in the field of science and technology with practically little or no change except that demanded by the exigencies of spelling and pronunciation of each language. Some examples of these units are:

Unit	English	French	German	Russian	Japanese	Arabic
Unit of Weight	Gramme	Gramme	Gramm	Gramme	Guramu	Ghramme
Unit of Length	Meter	Metre	Meter	Metre	Meitoru	Mīter
Unit of Heat	Calory	Calorie	Kalorie	Kalori	Karori	Kalori
Unit of Energy	Erg	Erg	Erg	Erg	Erg	Erg
Unit of Force	Dyne	Dyne	Dyne	Dina	Dyne	Dyne
Unit of Liquid Capacity	Litre	Litre	Liter	Litre	Rittoru	Līter
Unit of Current	Ampere	Ampere	Amper	Amper	Ampea	Ampear
Unit of Electric Potential	Volt	Volt	Volt	Volta	Voruto	Volt
Unit of Electric Resistance	Ohm	Ohm	Ohm	Ohm	Omu	Omyok
Unit of Electric Power	Watt	Watt	Watt	Watt	Watto	Alvāt
Unit of Energy	Joule	Joule	Joule	Djoule	Yūl	Yulu, Jchul
Unit of Electric Capacitance	Farad	Farad	Farad	Faraddo	Faraddo	Farad
Unit of Quantity	Coulomb	Coulomb	Coulomb	Kulom	Kālom	Kulom
Unit of Inductance	Henry	Henri	Henri	Henri	Henri	Henrī

(b) *Names of the 98 elements*: The names of the 98 elements from Neuton to Californium have been adopted by all languages without change. Most languages, however, including English, have common names also for some of these elements like gold, silver, copper, etc., which have been known to mankind for a long time. These popular names, however, are largely con-

finied to non-scientific usage.

(c) *Names of Chemical Compounds*: These names are also of world-wide usage and so far as is known, scientists in no country have tried to evolve their own separate terminology for the vast majority of these compounds. Their number runs literally into hundreds of thousands. A few examples only will suffice here:

English	French	German	Russian	Japanese	Arabic
Atropine	Atropine	Atropin	Atropin	Atoropin	Atropin
Bromide	Bromide	Bromid	Bromed	Buromaïdo	Bromeed
Caffeine	Coffeine	Koffein	Kofein	Kafen	Kafeen
Chloride	Chloride	Chlorid	Khlored	Koreido	Kloreed
Colloid	Colloid	Kolloid	Kolloid	Koroido	Gareavi
Phenol	Phenol	Phenol	Fenol	Fenonu	Fenol

(d) *Binomial terms relating to Botany and Zoology*: These terms began to be made in the early stages of scientific studies in modern Europe when, in order to achieve international intelligibility, Latin was by common consent used for the purpose. Since then, these binomial terms have been universally accepted by all languages. A few examples of such terms are: Botany—

Albies alba, Acacia aramata, Briza Eracta, Kalamia Latifolia; Zoology—Triceps femoris, Tribialis Anterior, Rectus abdominus, Carum aorticum.

It should, however, be noted that while these terms are Latin in form, they are not always made from Latin or Greek roots. Quite often, the European scientists took

the native name of an animal or plant and just latinized it. An interesting example is the term 'garealis gangeticus' which was originally 'garealis gangeticus' which in turn has been formed from the well-known Indian name 'gharial' given to the alligator found in the Ganges. Another example of a Botanical name is 'areca catechu' wherein the term 'areca' is merely a latinized form of the Malayalam word 'adekka' and 'catechu' is the latinized form of Kannada word 'Kachu'. Similarly, the term 'alchemilla' is a latinisation of the Arabic word *iklil-ul-malik*. A number of these binomial terms have been formed by Indian scientists and are based on Sanskrit. They too have gained world wide acceptance, e.g. *Nipani-nohu granthia* (conifer); *Podesporites tripakshi* (a pollen) and *Bwayabeeja Sundara* (a new type of genus and species of fungi). This last name was given as late as 1958 by its discoverer Shri C. V. Subramaniam.²¹

(e) *Terms based on proper names commemorating mostly the inventor or the discoverer*: Such terms cover a very wide field and a large number of subjects. Among the units of measurement mentioned above, the last eight are terms belonging to this class. Other examples are Fahrenheit (name of a thermometer), Macadam (type of road surface), Aston (a dark space in the immediate neighbourhood of a cathode), Auger (a secondary-electron emission). These terms also are found in practically unchanged forms in all languages. An interesting example here again is that of Raman Effect named after the celebrated Indian scientist Dr. C. V. Raman who discovered it. This term has now been adopted by physicists the world over. Similarly the term 'Sahni pushpam' denot-

ing a fossil flower discovered by the late Dr. Birbal Sahni has also gained universal acceptance.

(f) *Names given to certain objects or preparations by their inventors or discoverers*: It is an unwritten convention among the scientists of the world that whatever name is given to a particular object or concept by its inventor or discoverer, the same is accepted unquestioningly by all scientists the world over. It is but natural that the vast majority of terms falling under this category are European in origin though not necessarily derived from Greek or Latin, since, practically the entire original research work in the field of science and technology has been done in European countries during the last hundred years or so. Some very recent examples of such terms are penicillin, sulfa, glucose, pepsin, protein, vitamin, neutron, etc. On some occasions when it happened that a non-European scientists had discovered or invented a certain object and given it a name based on his own language, that name is readily and unhesitatingly accepted by scientists all over the world. The example of 'Sahni puspham', 'tripakshi' and 'Bwaya-beeja Sundara' already mentioned previously are pertinent cases in point. In the universal brotherhood of science, there is no room for national prejudices.

(g) *Other terms which have gained world wide currency*: These belong to almost every branch of science and their number also runs literally into hundreds of thousands. A few of these terms are of non-European origin and these also have been readily accepted without hesitation by European scientists. A few examples are:—

English	French	German	Russian	Japanese	Arabic
Acetylene	Acetylene	Acetylen	Atselan	Ascetirin	Asytelin
Alkali	Alcali	Alkali	Alaki	Arukari	Alqali
Ammonium	Ammonium	Ammonium	Ammoniak	Ammoniam	Ammonium
Bacillus	Bacillus	Bacille	Batsilla	Bachirus	Basil
Cholera	Cholera	Cholera	Kholera	Korera	Kolera
Chrome	Chrome	Chrom	Khrom	Kuromu	Al-krum
Console	Console	Konsole	Konsol	Konsole	Kansol
Radio	Radio	Radio	Rajjo	Radio	Radio
Typhoon (Chinese)	Typhon	Typhon	Tyfon	Taifū	Taifun
Monsoon	Monsoon	Munsoon	Monsoon	Monsun	Mansun

We have so far discussed terms which are of practically world wide usage. As shown above, they count for a very large proportion of scientific and technical terminology. Equally numerous, if not more numerous indeed, are terms which, though not found in every advanced language of the world, are yet common to a group of languages or to two or more languages of different groups. The European languages, of course, share in common a very large bulk of scientific and technical vocabulary of this kind. Most of them have also been adopted by one or more of the major Eastern languages. Thus, the word 'antenna' is common to all European languages and has also been adopted by Japanese (antena). The same is true of terms like 'colloid' (Jap. Koroide), 'concrete' (Jap. Konkuriito). On the other hand, a term like 'consul' is common to all European languages and has been adopted by Arabic and Persian also (as 'qansal') though not by Japanese which already has its own current term for it, viz., 'Ryojo'. So also terms like 'telegraph' which has been adopted by Arabic and Persian as 'talgaraf' but for which Japanese and other Asian countries have different words. Examples can be multiplied almost indefinitely. In fact the more closely we study the scientific and technical vocabulary of modern languages, the more evident it becomes that there has been an almost unlimited give and take among them in this field and that this process has been greatly accelerated in the context of modern scientific advance.

A word now about how best this international terminology can be adopted and assimilated into the Indian languages. Obviously this cannot be a mechanical procedure. The University Education Commission itself was of the opinion that the international terms should not be borrowed indiscriminately.²² We have to proceed judiciously and certain principles have to be laid down for doing this work. This problem has now engaged the attention of over a hundred experts from all parts of the country for about eight years. As a result of this gigantic co-operative

effort it has been possible to lay down the broad lines on which international terminology should be adopted and assimilated into the Indian languages.

The first question to be decided in this connection is what terms, apart from those of universal usage, are to be accepted as international terms for our purpose. This question arises because in a large number of cases it happens that a particular term is shared in common by say, languages a, b, c, and d but is not found in language e, whereas another term may be common to languages b, c, d and e but may not be found in a, while yet another term may be common to languages a, c, d and e and may not be found in b, and so on. There is no doubt about the international character of these terms since they are shared in common by a number of languages. But what criteria should we adopt for the acceptance or rejection of these terms into Indian languages? The Board of Scientific Terminology set up by the Central Ministry of Education considered this question in all its aspects and came to the conclusion that from the practical point of view and for ensuring the utilisation of the maximum number of international terms, such terms as are shared in common by at least three European languages should be accepted as international and adopted into the Indian languages.²³ In actual practice, this has proved a safe general rule.

The next question in this context is, what is the optimum volume of international terminology which Indian languages can absorb with advantage. Here we come up against certain basic facts. First, India has a long tradition of scientific studies and technical arts and crafts. There is, consequently, a large body of scientific and technical vocabulary already existing in our classical languages and through them it has also found its way into all the major modern Indian languages. Secondly, during the last hundred years or so, with the impact of scientific advancement of the West, a large number of new scientific and technical terms have

22) Report of U.E.C., Vol. I, P. 315, Para 26.

(23) Minutes of the fifth meeting of the Board of Scientific Terminology, 20th April, 1954.

come into existence, which have gained wide currency, and are easily intelligible and have clear and precise connotations. Thirdly, it has been found that terms denoting concepts or thought processes, even in the world of science are to a large extent developed independently by each language. In view of these three basic facts we have to accept and adopt international terminology into Indian languages with the following qualifications :—

(a) To maintain the continuity of our own scientific tradition and also to ensure that our scientific terminology, however much nutrition it may receive from external sources, remains firmly rooted in its native soil, it is essential that all the existing scientific and technical terms current in modern Indian languages should be utilised to the fullest possible extent. International terms should not be adopted at the cost of indigenous terms which already exist and which have developed precise meanings. This position has in fact always been taken even by those who have most strongly advocated the adoption of international terminology. The Scientific Terminology Committee for instance, said that "it will be necessary to employ in addition to international terminology terms borrowed or adopted from the two main stocks to which most Indian languages belong".²⁴ The Reference Board of Scientific Terminology specifically stated that "well-known scientific terms already in use in the Indian languages with specific and unambiguous meanings and which form an integral part of the language should continue to be used."²⁵ The University Education Commission likewise took care to point out that in some sciences at least "Indian languages have a number of terms of their own..... It is not necessary or desirable that words should be borrowed for all these terms from outside." To take a concrete example, though the words 'molecule' and 'atom' are international terms in the fullest sense, their concepts in Hindi and a number of other Indian languages are exactly expressed by two existing terms,

viz., 'anu' and 'paramanu'. The latter should, therefore, be accepted in the Indian languages in preference to the European terms.

(b) Indigenous scientific and technical terms which have gained currency in comparatively recent times should also similarly be accepted in preference to international terms wherever these possess precise and unambiguous connotations, *e.g.*, in Hindi 'damar' for asphalt, 'tar' for telegraph, 'mahadvip' for continent and so on.

(c) In adopting names of elements, such names as already exist in Indian languages for some of these elements should similarly be accepted. But here, the international terms should also be retained for purely scientific purposes. This, in fact, is the practice in all languages. Thus in Hindi we may have both 'gandhak' and 'sulphur', 'swarna' and 'aurum', 'rupya' and 'argentum', 'sisa' and 'plumbum', 'loha' and 'ferrum'.

(d) In the case of concepts and thought processes, Indian indigenous terms should be preferred to foreign loan words since the concept involved can be much more easily explained through the medium of our own languages rather than through borrowed words. Thus, 'gurutva' for gravity, 'urja' for energy, 'veg' for velocity, 'gati' for motion, 'samksharan' for corrosion, are all preferable to their corresponding European equivalents. In branches of knowledge, therefore, like Mathematics, Philosophy, etc., where concepts and thought processes predominate, the volume of international terminology acceptable would be rather less than any other fields where there is preponderance of concrete objects like Medicine, Chemistry, Engineering, etc.

The third main problem that faces us in the adoption of international terminology is the problem of derivatives. It is a basic principle of linguistic evolution that while a living language can borrow words from

(24) Proceedings of the 6th meeting of the C.A.B.E., pp. 71-72.

(25) Proceedings of the 15th meeting of the C.A.B.E., pp. 39-40.

different sources almost to an unlimited extent, it never borrows the grammatical forms of other languages (except of course, when an inflected form is bodily taken over from the source language). The borrowing language takes words from different sources and fits them into its own grammatical and idiomatic structure thereby assimilating them to its genius. Thus, in English while words like 'brother', 'position', 'agile', 'yog' and 'admiral' have been borrowed from German, French, Italian, Sanskrit and Arabic languages, respectively, their derivatives, like 'brotherhood', 'positioned', 'agileness', 'yogic' and 'admiralty' have been formed in strict accordance with the grammatical structure of English itself. The same rule has to be adopted for Indian languages also and derivatives of all international terms borrowed by them have to be formed in accordance with the grammatical structure of each language. Thus in Hindi, we can have 'voltata' for voltage, 'ammapi' for ammeter, 'kansuli' for consular, 'filarit' for filtered and so on. Other Indian languages will similarly make their own derivatives from the basic international terms accepted by them.

Lastly, terms accepted into each Indian language have to be assimilated to the phonetic genius of the language so far as spelling and pronunciations are concerned.

By and large, the English pronunciation of these terms can be adopted since it is more familiar to our countrymen for historical reasons. Thus, in Hindi, terms like metre, atom, volt, atropine, bromide, oxide, radio, etc., can all be accepted in their English forms. But where the phonetic genius of Indian languages demands, the English pronunciation of terms can be given up in favour of pronunciation of source language of the term. Thus, in Hindi we have 'gram' for gramme, 'kalari' for calorie, 'akademi' for academy, 'mansun' for monsoon and so on.

To sum up, a commonsense and practical approach is the essential requisite in the process of adoption and assimilation of international terminology into Indian languages. While we make sure that we do not cut ourselves away from the rest of the world in the present context of rapid scientific advance, we also at the same time utilise to the fullest extent the existing resources of our own languages and we preserve intact their essential structure and genius. This is the only way to develop these languages into effective media of expression in the fields of science and technology without either isolating them from all contacts with other advanced languages of the world or overburdening them with loan words and foreign constructions.

- Intelligence appears to be the thing that enables a man to get along without education. Education appears to be the thing that enables a man to get along without the use of intelligence.

—A. E. Wiggam

Constitutional Obligations in Education

THE PREAMBLE TO THE Constitution of India defined our position as a democratic state pledged itself to secure to all its citizens justice, liberty and equality of status and opportunity. The directive principles of the State policy amplified this position in three clauses whereby the State undertook to promote the welfare of the people by securing a just social, economic and political order, to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution for free compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14, and to promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people and in particular of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The Constitution has also laid down that Hindi in Devanagari script shall be the official language of the Union and shall be developed so that it may become a medium of expression of all the elements of the composite culture of India. There are certain other educational rights conferred by the Constitution such as freedom to attend religious instruction in certain educational institutions, establishment and administration of educational institutions by minorities etc. In this article we are concerned with two important obligations : (1) Democratisation of Educational Opportunity and (2) Propagation and Development of the Federal Language.

Democratisation of Education

With the dawn of independence and the adoption of the Constitution that embodied its triumph, the democratisation of education had begun. This process of flinging wide the gates of learning to the millions is many-sided but two of its most important aspects are provision of free and compulsory education up to the age of 14 and large-scale introduction of scholarships specially for those who, for

one reason or another, have been denied the opportunity to educate themselves.

(i) *Free and Compulsory Education* : According to article 45 of the Constitution, the State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years.

On the eve of independence hardly 30 per cent of our children in the age-group 6-11 were in school of one kind or another. One of the first things that the National Government set out to do upon the attainment of freedom was to make up the leeway and to spread education throughout the length and breadth of the sub-continent. To implement the above directive of the Constitution, the First Five-Year Plan fixed the target to provide schooling to at least 60 per cent children of the age-group 6-11. Owing to lack of finances and other factors, however, the target could not be fully achieved. The Second Five-Year Plan of Educational Development fixed this target at 75 per cent which was also reduced subsequently to 63 per cent again due mainly to the paucity of funds.

By now it has become abundantly clear that our ends are not commensurate with our means. We have now shifted our approach from idealism to reality. Having made an all-India survey of our educational needs at the Primary level, and having taken a stock of our resources and their future availability, we have come to the conclusion that it would not be possible to reach the goal—or even plan for it—within the period prescribed by the Constitution. By the end of our Third Five-Year Plan, we are now attempting to bring our children of the age-group 6-11 only under our universal, free and compulsory education scheme. It is said that an attempt would be made to realise our ultimate objective of providing free and compulsory education up to 14 years within a period of 15 to 20 years. In

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view of our experience in the past, however, this statement should not lie in our mouth unless we are in a position to realise our present targets fully by the end of the Third Five-Year Plan.

(ii) *Scholarships to Backward Classes* : Article 46 lays down that the State shall promote with a special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.

In order to fulfil this statutory obligation the Government have adopted special measures for the promotion of the educational interests of all such sections, for it is only through education that individuals and groups can develop their natural virtues of body, mind and spirit.

The Government of India under their Scheme of Scholarships for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes have made enormous grants for the purpose since independence. The amounts that have been granted under the scheme are about Rs. 5 lakhs in 1947-48, Rs. 31 lakhs in 1952-53, Rs. 187 lakhs in 1956-57 and over Rs. 200 lakhs in 1959-60. There has also been tremendous increase in the number of scholarships awarded (from 655 in 1947-48 to about 50,000 at present). This phenomenal rise in grants and scholarships is a considerable achievement and is an earnest of the Government's solicitude for the welfare of these classes. Besides, coaching classes to train Harijan students for the All-India services have been started. While there can be no doubt about the efficacy of the measure, it is felt that such privileges for a particular section of the community should not be allowed to continue indefinitely.

Development of Hindi

Article 343 of the Constitution has set a limit of fifteen years after which all work of the Central Government will have to be carried on in Hindi instead of English. Article 351 further declares that it shall

be the duty of the Union to promote the spread of the Hindi language, to develop it so that it may serve as a medium of expression for all the elements of the composite culture of India and to secure its enrichment by assimilating without interfering with its genius, the forms, style and expressions used in Hindustani and in the other languages of India specified in the Eighth Schedule, and by drawing, wherever necessary or desirable for its vocabulary, primarily on Sanskrit and secondarily on other languages.

It is obvious that to substitute one State language by another is no easy matter. The difficulty of the operation is all the greater in the circumstances that face India. On the one hand, it is sought to replace an established language like English by one which has not been used for State administration till now. On the other there are major Indian languages, besides Hindi, and care has to be taken to allay any suspicion that the development of Hindi may not in any way prejudice the growth and development of these languages.

In view of this the Government chalked out a planned programme so that when the time came after fifteen years to replace English by Hindi, the change could be effected without any hardship and with complete success. Of the measures necessary for achieving this objective, the two most important are to develop as rapidly as possible Hindi terms in science, technology and administration to meet our national requirements and to foster the spread of the language in areas where it is not the mother tongue. The Government is therefore busy with the preparation of scientific and technical terms in Hindi. A drive is also being made to make Hindi a compulsory subject in all non-Hindi speaking areas so that the next generation of educated Indians may be Hindi-knowing. A number of our Universities have also adopted Hindi as one of their media of expression. Some of the Hindi-speaking States have already started conducting their business in Hindi. At the centre, Hindi is being introduced side by side with English for administrative purposes. All this is true. But it is doubtful if it would

be possible or desirable to shift to Hindi completely within the next five years which is the Constitutional limit.

Looking Back

From what has been stated above, it is clear that we have not been able to fulfil the promises that were made by us ten years ago, in regard to the democratisation of education as also in the adoption of the federal language. It is, however, reassuring that we have not failed in our endeavour. The battle has not yet been won—it has not been lost either. In fact, in the midst of bare sentiments, raw enthusiasm and lofty ambitions, that are a natural corollary to independence after prolonged drudgery, we did not use much imagination and foresight in prescribing the period for the achievements of our educational goals. It is interesting to note that our Constitution has not fixed any deadline for achievement in any field of social activity other than education. Now that we have realised our helplessness in the matter, we should march ahead in the field with care and caution. We should realise that education is a continuous process and it is not wise to measure our achievements in this field merely in terms of quantity. In

our hurry to bring our teeming millions into the fold of literacy we should not lose sight of the fact that an improvement in the quality of education is also necessary to enable our youth to shoulder the responsibilities of a free nation in this atomic age. In our angelic zeal to wipe out poverty from our land we cannot afford to forget that education is the *basic resource* for all national progress and the necessary funds have got to be provided for it if we are aiming at a really socialistic pattern of society. In our endeavour to promote the educational interests of the hitherto under-privileged sections of our society, we have to take care that our standards of excellence do not suffer any set-back, that our deserving and meritorious children—irrespective of class or community—get their due share of our attention. Our anxiety to replace English by our national language should not lead to any administrative breakdown of the Government machinery. We have also to respect the sentiments and realise the difficulties of a large section of our people who are still unfamiliar with Hindi. We can succeed in our mission if our steps are slow and steady. Our salvation lies in a flexible approach.

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Provision of School Places in Classes I to V

ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT problems in the administration of Primary education is to decide, as accurately as possible, the provision of school-places required for a programme of compulsory education. In the First and the Second Five-Year Plans, the policy adopted was to provide as many school-places in classes I to V as would be equal to the number of children in the age-group of 6-11 that was proposed to be enrolled. For example, the target for the Second Plan was to enrol about 65% of the children in the age-group of 6-11. Therefore, the total number of school-places in classes I-V for which provision was made was 300 lakhs or 65 per cent of the total estimated population of children (about 460 lakhs) in the age-group of 6-11. In other words, the formula adopted was as follows :—

School-places to be provided in classes I to V = Total number of children in the age-group of 6-11 proposed to be enrolled.

It was known that a large number of children in the under-age and over-age groups were reading in classes I to V; but it was felt that things would ultimately adjust themselves and that the total enrolment in classes I to V would be equal to the total number of children in the age-group of 6-11. The implications of this assumption are not always fully realised. It is, therefore, necessary to examine them a little more in detail.

The usual formula for calculating the provision of school-places or total school enrolment is as follows :—

$$\text{School-places to be provided} = A + \frac{PXY}{100D}$$

where

A = number of under-age and over-age children enrolled;

P = Population of children proposed to be enrolled;

X = Percentage of enrolment;

Y = Average duration of school-life; and

D = Duration of the course.

Under ideal conditions, when A = 0, X = 100 and Y = D, the above formula reduces itself to the simple form :—

Number of school-places to be provided in classes I to V = P = Total number of children in the age-group of 6-11.

It is, therefore, obvious that the assumption underlying the First and the Second Plans is true under ideal conditions only, *i.e.*,—

- (a) When there are no under-age or over-age children reading classes I to V *i.e.*, A = 0;
- (b) When every child is enrolled in school and there are no non-attending children, *i.e.*, X = 100; and
- (c) When there is no wastage and every child remains in school for the full period of the course, *i.e.*, Y = D.

In practice, however, such ideal conditions are never realised. A is never equal to zero. On the other hand, the number of under-age and over-age children attending classes I to V is very large and at present, it is about 23.7 per cent of the total enrolment in classes I-V. Similarly, X is not generally equal to 100 and Y is rarely equal to D. At present, the percentage of wastage is about 60 and Y varies between

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2.3 to 2.6 years. It is quite possible to reduce it; but the day when every child would remain in school for the full period of five years is yet rather distant. Our calculations, therefore, will have to be made on slightly different assumptions.

Assumptions for the Third Plan

What would be the reasonable assumptions for the Third Five-Year Plan (1961-62 to 1965-66) is the next issue. 'A' will continue to be large even during the Third Five-Year Plan and it is, therefore, suggested that this may be taken at the existing percentage, *i.e.*, about 23.7 per cent of the total because the present pattern of enrolment is not likely to change materially during the next five years. 'X' may be taken at 100 because, if an effort is made, it would be possible to bring every child into school for some period, however small. Y may be taken at 3.5 years. As stated earlier, it varies between 2.3 years to 2.6 years at present and we may, therefore, assume that intensive efforts would be made to reduce wastage and that the average period of 'school life' would be prolonged to 3.5 years. 'P' may be taken at 580 lakhs, which is the latest estimate given by the Planning Commission for the total population of children in the age-group of 6-11. I personally feel, however, that this would prove to be an underestimate in view of the latest projected population for 1966 given by the Central Statistical Organisation and that the correct figure would have to be taken at 600 lakhs.

Substituting in the above formula—

$$\begin{aligned} \text{School-places to be provided} \\ \text{in classes I-V} &= A + \frac{PXY}{100D} \\ &= A + \frac{600 \times 100 \times 3.5}{100 \times 5} \text{ lakhs} \\ &= A + 420 \text{ lakhs} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 130 + 420 \text{ lakhs}$$

$$= 550 \text{ lakhs}$$

(A is taken at the present rate, *i.e.*, 23.7 per cent of the total of 550 lakhs).

It will thus be seen that we need to provide 580 lakhs of school-places by 1965-66. The enrolment that is proposed to be reached at the end of the Second Five-Year Plan has been tentatively estimated at 340 lakhs. Hence a provision of 210 lakhs of additional school-places will have to be made during the Third Five-Year Plan.

Implications

The exact implications of this provision should be clearly understood. For clarity of reference, however, they have been stated below :—

- (i) Universality of school provision will have to be made if these targets are to be reached. That is to say, a school will have to be provided within easy walking distance from the home of every child.
- (ii) Of the 600 lakhs of school-places provided, only about 420 lakhs are expected to be utilized by children in the age-group of 6-11. This works out at about 70 per cent of the total.
- (iii) About 130 lakhs of places will be utilized by children outside the age-group of 6-11. Of these, those below the age of 6 would be very few; but the vast majority would be of the age-group of 11-14. As stagnation is reduced, these children will be pushed up to classes VI-VIII and their place will be taken up by children in the age-group of 6-11.
- (iv) Every child in the age-group of 6-11 is expected to be enrolled and stay in the school for 3.5 years. Since permanent literacy is attained in this period, the evil of lapse into illiteracy is expected to be reduced to the minimum by the end of the Third Plan.

- (v) In the simpler language of common sense, these targets imply the enrolment of about 92 per cent of the children in the age-group of 6-11.

These calculations are made on the basis of a uniform enrolment of 92 per cent for boys and girls and for all States. In practice, however, the enrolment of girls is likely to be much lower in the States of U.P., Bihar, M.P., Rajasthan and Orissa.

The target for boys also is not likely to exceed 85 per cent in several States. All things considered, therefore, a provision of about 180 to 200 lakhs of additional school-places in classes I-V is all that can be realistically forecast. The provision of additional school-places made in the First Plan was 60 lakhs and that in the Second Plan was 100 lakhs. Hence the requirement of the Third Plan may be said to be about three times that of the First Plan and twice that of the Second Plan.

SMILE AWHILE

The champion athlete in bed with a cold was told that he was running a temperature.

"How high is it, doc?" he wanted to know.

"A hundred and one".

"What's the world record?"



Teacher : "The horse neighs, the sheep bleats and the dog barks, what does the donkey do?"

Pupil : "Lets you ride on its back, sir".



Editor : "I guess you find journalism a thankless job?"

Writer : "On the contrary, everything I do is returned with thanks".



Bureau of Ednl. & Psyl. Research
(S. C. E. R. T.)

Date 3.3.81

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Roundup of activities **m**inistry of education

ELEMENTARY AND BASIC EDUCATION

All-India Council for Elementary Education

The 3rd meeting of the All India Council for Elementary Education was held on 19th and 20th October, 1959. The deliberations of the Council centred largely round the estimates and programmes for implementation of the scheme for compulsory education for children of the age group 6-11 years before the end of the Third Plan.

Schemes of Elementary, Basic and Social Education

The Basic and Social Education Committee has recommended a provision of Rs. 498.36 crores for their schemes in the Third Five-Year Plan.

Regional Meeting of Asian Member States on Primary and Compulsory Education

The Indian delegation to the 10th session of the general conference of UNESCO moved a resolution suggesting inclusion of the major project on extension of compulsory and primary education for Asian countries in the future programme of that organisation. In pursuance of this resolution and on the basis of material collected through preliminary studies in various countries UNESCO organised a regional meeting at Karachi from 28th December 1959 to 9th January, 1960 on which India was represented.

National Institute of Basic Education

The third Short-Term Training Course for Administrators in Basic Education was

organised by the Institute under their programme for training of personnel at higher level.

Fifty delegates of the ranks of District Educational Officers, Assistant Directors and Deputy Directors of Education, representing all the States and Union Territories of the country participated in the course.

Educational Tours of Teachers

The Government of India have approved the proposals sponsored by the following States and Union Territory Administrations :—

Kerala
Orissa
Bihar
Bombay
Manipur
Tripura

Expansion of Girls' Education and Training of Women Teachers

Grants have been sanctioned to the following States/Union Territories for implementation of the above scheme during the current year.

State/Union Territory		Amount
1. Uttar Pradesh	14,00,000
2. Bombay	6,54,000
3. Punjab	3,00,000
4. Madhya Pradesh	6,00,000

	Rs.
5. Andhra Pradesh	6,37,537
6. Bihar	8,50,000
7. Orissa	4,00,000
8. Manipur	35,050
9. Tripura	19,800
10. Rajasthan	4,00,000
11. Assam	1,08,000

Proposals from Mysore, West Bengal, Madras and Jammu and Kashmir are under consideration.

Children's Literature

The third meeting of the Children's Literature Committee was held on 6th November, 1959, for finalization of the result of the Vth Prize Competition. The result was announced on Children's Day—i.e. 14th November, 1959, and the 24 books were awarded prizes of Rs. 500 each.

The award of five additional prizes of Rs. 500 each to five prize winning books of the IVth Competition was also announced on 14th November, 1959.

The holding of the VIth prize Competition has also been announced. Under this competition, Government of India propose to award 30 prizes in all i.e. fifteen prizes of Rs. 1,000 each and fifteen of Rs. 500 each. The last date for receipt of entries is 30th March, 1960.

Organization of Sahitya Rachanalayas for training Authors in the Technique of Preparing Literature for Children.

Administrative approval for Rs. 11,000 each was issued to four State Governments for 1959-60.

Production of Literature and other Material for Basic Education.

Guide Books for Teachers of Basic Schools: Results of the competition organised by the Ministry was announced. Six prizes have been awarded to authors for best books of different grades.

Monographs on Various Aspects of Basic Education: One of the finalized manuscripts has been sent for printing.

Supplementary Reading Material for Children: A few publishing firms have been selected on the basis of the recommendations of the *ad hoc* committee set up for the purpose, for assigning to them the publication of one book each with Government subsidy, on a trial basis.

Source books for teachers of Basic Schools: About 250 names were received from State Governments, training institutions and individuals for preparing various parts of the two source books on General Science and Social Studies. Selection of suitable authors has been made and approved.

Research projects on Craft material: Rs. 5,110 was sanctioned to the Government of Mysore for undertaking the research project on Agriculture by the Basic Training Centre, Vidyanagar.

Financial Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

The following grants were sanctioned to Voluntary Educational Organisations working in the fields of Basic and Pre-Primary Education :—

1. R.C. Basic Training school, Tindivanam, South Arcot, Madras.	17,870
2. Mazi Shala, Nagpur...	2,500
3. Gandhi Seva Sadan, Rajsamand (Rajasthan).	17,000
4. Chartur Education Society, Anand (Bombay).	67,400
5. Bal Niketan Sangh, Indore, (M.P.).	3,000

Sub-committee Meeting of the National Council for Women's Education

A meeting of the above committee was held on 5-1-1960 in New Delhi when the preparation of State plans under the special programme for the expansion of girls, education and the pattern of central assistance were discussed along with other items and certain conclusions arrived at.

Loan for Construction of Hostels—Basic Education Institutions:

The following State Governments have been sanctioned 2nd instalment of loan for re-loaning to institutions.

Rajasthan for Gandhi Vidya Mandir, Sardarshahr.	Rs. 1,00,000
Mysore for S.S.T. College, Lachyan.	Rs. 30,000
Madras for Palaniammal B.T. School, Coimbatore.	Rs. 36,000

Expansion of Teachers Training Facilities

Administrative approval of the Government of India for further expenditure under this Scheme was communicated to the following State Governments: Bihar, Rs. 2,94,000; Uttar Pradesh Rs. 4,13,000; Bombay; Rs. 3,66,000, and Rajasthan; Rs. 2,03,349.

The following expansion in teacher training facilities is reported by the State Governments.

Andhra Pradesh: 25 additional sections.

Bihar: 21 teacher training institutions.

Bombay: 20 new Basic training colleges.

Madhya Pradesh: Expansion in existing teacher training institutions by 400 seats and 23 new institutions.

Rajasthan: 11 Governments S.T.C. Schools.

Uttar Pradesh: Expansion in existing institutions by 350 seats and 48 new normal schools.

Seminars under the Compulsory Primary Education Programmes

It is proposed to organise four Regional Seminars during the year 1960-61 for the orientation training of educational administrators at the higher levels on major issues in connection with the programme of providing compulsory primary education during the Third Five-Year Plan.

Experimental Projects Regarding Introduction of Universal Free and Compulsory Primary Education in Selected Areas

A Scheme to study scientifically some of the major problems in connection with Universal, Free and Compulsory Primary Education has been prepared. The States of Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and Bombay and the Union Territory of Manipur have sent details about the blocks, personnel etc.

Estimates for Free and Compulsory Primary Education

The estimates from State Governments and Administrations of Union Territories for the Third Five-Year Plan were placed before the Central Working Groups for Education. The estimates of the States are being revised in the light of the new basis recommended by the working group. Individual studies of six States where Primary education is comparatively less developed have been completed. The studies of other States are in progress.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Central Advisory Board of Education

The 27th Meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education was held at New Delhi from 4 to 7 February, 1960. The Minister in his inaugural address dwelt *inter alia* on the problems of student indiscipline, the need for evolving a suitable scheme for Compulsory National Service and the question of Moral and Religious instruction. The Board discussed the various points raised by the Minister in his inaugural address in detail. Among the other items discussed were :—

- (1) The establishment of State Evaluation Units to effect examination reform.
- (2) The possibility of providing science teaching in every Secondary School and the preparation of an adequate number of qualified

and trained science teachers for the purpose.

- (3) Grant of adequate central assistance for schemes under University Education to States having low output of graduates.

The Informal Conference of State Directors of Public Instruction was held on 3rd February, 1960.

The items discussed included :

1. Stagnation in Primary Schools.
2. Provision of buildings for schools and the inadequacy of Central assistance for the purpose.
3. The question of recruitment and training of District Social Education Organisers.

4. Implementation of recommendations of the *ad hoc* Enquiry Committee on Games and Sports.

National Awards for Teachers

71 teachers—33 from Secondary Schools and 38 from Primary Schools—were given National awards. Each award carries with it a certificate of merit and a cash payment of Rs. 500. The President of India gave away the awards at a ceremony in Vigyan Bhavan, New Delhi, on 25th January 1960.

Research in Problems Connected with Secondary Education

Grants under the above Scheme have been sanctioned to the following nine institutions :

Institutions	Title of Research Project	Rs Amount sanctioned
Mahila Vidyalaya Training College, Lucknow.	Study of causes of Educational fall off in classes VI to XII.	3,395
University of Nagpur	Preparation of achievement tests for some electives at the High School stage.	6,983
Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth, Gargoti.	A study of the scholastic backwardness of pupils in Rural Secondary Schools.	1,485
Hindu College, Moradabad	A comparative study of integrated and traditional methods of approach in the teaching of social studies to Class VI.	1,807
University of Allahabad	A study of the causes of failures in High School examinations in U.P.	1,605
	A survey of the load of work on Secondary School teachers	
Muslim University, Aligarh	A study of Interest Patterns of teachers under training at the Muslim University, Aligarh, <i>vis-a-vis</i> the Interest Patterns of trainees in other professions.	2,599
M.S. University of Baroda	Construction and Standardisation of achievement tests.	14,074
Tilak Dhari Training College, Jaunpur.	Common errors in written English—their prevention and cure.	598
University of Bombay	Preparation of achievement tests in Marathi for Standard VII and interest inventory.	2,394
		<u>34,939</u>

New York Herald Tribune Forum

Shri Bimal Prashad Jain, a student of the First Year Pre-Medical Class, Hindu College, Delhi, has been selected to represent India in the Forum (Jan—March,

1960) out of those whose names had been recommended by Universities and State Governments. Shri Jain reached New York on 27th December 1959.

Educational Delegations to and from India *Nepalese Students' Delegation*

At the invitation of the Government of India, a 15-member delegation from Nepal consisting of 14 students and a professor visited India from 30-11-1959 to 29-12-59. It visited a number of important cities and attended for a few days the sixth Inter-University Youth Festival at Mysore.

Russian Delegation

At the invitation of the Government of India a delegation of six Educationists from U.S.S.R. arrived in India on 2nd January, 1960. The delegation visited various centres of historical and educational interest in India.

Sikkimese Students'/Teachers' Delegation

A delegation of ten students and two teachers from Sikkim were on a tour of Northern India from 17-1-60 to 28-1-60. The delegation also visited Calcutta, Patna, Nalanda, Agra, Mathura, Vrindaban, Jaipur and Varanasi.

Promotion of Inter-State Understanding

Under this Scheme, a rally of Secondary School students was held at Humayun's Tomb, New Delhi, from 22-1-60 to 28-1-60. State Governments were requested to depute six selected students from their respective States accompanied by a teacher. Students were also invited from Centrally Administered Areas, including Pondicherry, at the rate of one each. A total of 92 students and teachers attended the rally.

Lawrence School Lovedale

Rs. 9,855.30 nP. has been sanctioned as the second and final instalment of the Government of India's share on entitled children for the year 1959-60.

Anglo-Indian Education

(a) Rs. 4,282 has been sanctioned to the Inter State Board for Anglo-Indian

Education as the Government of India's Share for the year 1959-60.

(b) Rs. 7,290 has been sanctioned to Dr. Graham's Homes, Kalimpong, for the year 1959-60 after enforcing the third 10% cut on the grant under Article 337 of the Indian Constitution.

Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

An *ad hoc* grant of Rs. 75,000 was sanctioned to Ramakrishna Mission Ashram Narendrapur, 24-Parganas, West Bengal, for meeting the developmental activities of the "Students' Home" run by them.

Minister's Discretionary Fund

Rs. 3,000 was sanctioned to Hiralal Ramnawas Higher Secondary School, Basti (U.P.) for the construction of Science Laboratories.

Central Institute of English, Hyderabad

The seventh meeting of the Board of Governors was held at the Central Institute Building on 16th October, 1959. The third course of training started on 16th November, 1959.

Education in the Union Territories

The sanction of the President has been conveyed to the Tripura Administration for the grant of Training Allowance at the rate of Rs. 50 p.m. per head to the Social Education Organisers who are deputed to undergo training in different parts of India on the basis of seats provided by the Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation.

The sanction of the President has been conveyed to the Manipur Administration for the grant of the following allowances (to be treated as special pay) to the superintendents and assistant superintendents of Government Hostels in Manipur for the additional duties of supervising these Hostels.

Number of boarders							Allowance permissible		
							Supdts Rs.	Asstt. Supdts. Rs.	Third Supdts. Rs.
From	1—25	15	—	—
From	26—40	25	—	—
From	41—55	35	—	—
From	56—75	45	15	—
From	76—100	50	20	15
Over	100	60	25	20

The sanction of the President has been conveyed to the Andamans Administration to the fixation of the scale of pay of the following posts for the Multipurpose Higher Secondary Schools in Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

Name of the Post				Scale of Pay
Principal	Rs. 350—25—500—30—590.
Senior Teachers	Rs. 200—10—250—15—325—EB—15—400. (admissible only to those who teach the XI Class).
Assistant Teachers	Rs. 120—8—200—EB—10—300 (applicable to teachers teaching the higher secondary classes).
Librarian..	Rs. 100—8—140—10—250.
Drawing Master	Rs. 120—8—200—EB—10—250.
Craft Instructors	Rs. 120—8—200—EB—10—250.
Laboratory Attendants	Rs. 35—1—50.

It has been decided to make Education free in Tripura and Manipur up to Class VIII, with effect from the next academic session. Necessary orders in the matter were issued on 11-1-1960.

Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education

Examination Unit

The Evaluation Officers posted to the selected training colleges conducted 60 State advanced level workshops in eight subjects in the different States. They also organised 15 orientation workshops during the period under review. The officers collected a considerable pool of test material and they

got this printed in the regional languages and administered the tests with the help of the training colleges.

Sub-Committees of the All-India Council for Secondary Education

The meetings of five Sub-Committees appointed by the All-India Council for Secondary Education for considering various educational schemes were held at New Delhi during the period under report.

Scheme of Strengthening Model Multipurpose Schools

The following multipurpose schools were selected for inclusion in the scheme of

strengthening 26 Model Multipurpose Schools :—

1. Shree Amulakh Ram Ami Chand Multipurpose High School, Bombay.
2. Kubair Multipurpose Higher Secondary School, Dabai (Bulandshahr).
3. Government Inter College, Meerut.
4. Government Jubilee Inter College, Lucknow.

The T.C.M. Consultants worked with each of these schools for about ten days in their respective subject fields.

Assessment of the Extension Services Department in West Bengal

The assessment of the four Extension Services Departments in West Bengal was completed by the Assessment Committee.

Seminars and Workshops

Nine Subject Teachers' seminars and six Headmasters' seminars in different subjects were held in the various States. A Conference of Heads of Multipurpose Schools took place at Calcutta.

HIGHER EDUCATION

National Service Committee

The National Service Committee, appointed by the Government in August, 1959 under the Chairmanship of Dr. C. D. Deshmukh to work out a scheme of social and labour service by students, has submitted its report and recommendations made by the committee are being considered by the Government.

The main recommendations of the Committee are as follows :—

- (1) Any scheme of national service must be compulsory if this is to be effective and is to make a real impact to improve the quality of manpower needed by the country. No exemptions are to be allowed on any ground.
- (2) A period of at least nine months to a year is the minimum required for achieving the objectives of national service.

- (3) The best stage for drafting youth in national service is when they pass out of Higher Secondary School or Pre-University classes and are prepared to enter life or the university. A year's national service at that stage will fill the gap left by the present secondary education and will equip young persons better both for life and the university.
- (4) The content should be so devised as to effect an all round improvement of the personality and character of the adolescent. It may include military discipline; national service and manual labour, and general education.
- (5) The programme would require for its implementation an organisational set up which should be broadbased and independent. A National Board should be set up to plan, implement, and evaluate a programme of national service. This should be preceded by careful preparation of a detailed plan of work for youth and for this purpose it is desirable to set up a representative working group of educationists, administrators, defence experts and other interests.

Appointment of Vice-Chancellor at Visva-Bharti

Shri S. R. Das, *Ex-Chief Justice of India*, has been appointed Vice-Chancellor of the Visva-Bharti, Shantiniketan, West Bengal, *vice* Shri Kshitis Chandra Chaudhuri with effect from 24th November, 1959.

Appointment of Members of the University Grants Commission

The Government of India have appointed the following persons as members of the University Grants Commission in the vacancies caused by the retirement, under the proviso to sub-section (1) of Section 6 of the University Grants Commission Act, 1956 (3 of 1956):—

- (1) Prof. J. K. Sidhanta, Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University, Calcutta (Renominated).

- (2) Dr. A. C. Joshi,
Vice-Chancellor,
Punjab University,
Chandigarh.

The Government of India have also appointed Dr. V. S. Krishna, Vice-Chancellor, Andhra University, Waltair, as a member of the Commission *vice* Shri G. C. Chatterjee who has ceased to be member thereof.

Maintenance Grant to Gurukula Kangri

Rs. 25,000 has been sanctioned to the Gurukula Kangri, Hardwar, being the third instalment of the Government of India's maintenance grant to the Gurukula during 1959-60. This brings the total amount released to the Gurukula during the current financial year to Rs. 75,000.

Loans to Affiliated Colleges for the Construction of Hostels

With effect from 1960-61, the procedure for grant of loans for the construction of hostels will be as follows:—

The present practice of giving loans direct by the Centre to educational institutions managed by voluntary organisations will be discontinued;

The sum provided in the budget for loans will be placed at the disposal of the State Governments who will also include a suitable provision in their own budget for making advances to the educational institutions eligible for assistance under this scheme; and

The Government of India would also provide funds in the form of grant-in-aid to the State Governments to the extent the interest charges on the loans advanced to the institutions are waived by them after taking into account the financial capacity of the institutions concerned. For this purpose also, the States will make corresponding provision in their budgets.

In the case of institutions to whom loans have been advanced direct in previous years by the Central Government on the recom-

mendations of the State Governments and where the full amount of the sanctioned loan has not been released so far, the balance of the sanctioned loans will continue to be paid direct by this Ministry.

In respect of the proposals for loans already recommended by the State Governments, it has been decided that these loans will be advanced to the State Governments, during 1959-60 according to the previous procedure.

Loans amounting Rs. 1,34,000 have been sanctioned to the following colleges:—

	Rs.
1. Dev Samaj College for Girls, Ambala City.	15,000
2. Barahseni College, Aligarh	24,000
3. Andhra Loyola College, Vijayawada.	35,000
4. D.C. Barua Girls College, Jorhat.	30,000
5. Bhadrak College, Bhadrak	30,000

Loans to Universities and Constituent Colleges of Delhi University for the Construction of Hostels and Staff Quarters

A sum of Rs. 2,00,000 was sanctioned to the Aligarh Muslim University for the construction of staff quarters.

Grant-in-aid to the University Grants Commission

Rs. 2,36,00,000 has been released to the University Grants Commission during the period from the 15th October, 1959 to the 31st January, 1960.

United States Educational Foundation in India—Nomination of Indian Members to the Board of Directors

Under Article 4 of the Indo-U.S. Agreement of February 2, 1950, as amended, for financing certain educational exchange programmes, the Government of India have appointed the following members as their nominees on the Board of Directors of the

United States Educational Foundation in India for the year 1960:—

1. Shri P. N. Kirpal,
Joint Secretary,
Ministry of Education.
2. Shri G. C. Chatterji,
Administrative Staff College,
Hyderabad.
3. Shri A. A. A. Fyzee,
Vice-Chancellor,
Jammu & Kashmir University,
Srinagar.

4. Dr. D. S. Kothari,
Scientific Adviser to the Government
of India,
Defence Science Organisation,
Ministry of Defence.
5. Dr. A. C. Joshi,
Vice-Chancellor,
Punjab University,
Chandigarh.

RURAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Grants

The following grants and stipends have been sanctioned to the following Rural Institutes :

	Grant	Stipends
	Rs.	Rs.
Rural Institute, Amravati	2,50,000	22,140
Institute of Rural Higher Education, Sriniketan	1,00,000	12,000
Jamia Rural Institute	15,000	14,105
Balwant Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Agra	1,33,482	14,934
Lok Bharti, Sanosara	—	1,920
Gandhigram Rural Institute	1,23,500	14,576
Kasturba Rural Institute, Rajpura	—	3,600
Rural Institute of Higher Studies, Birouli	—	8,040
Shri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalya Rural Institute, Coimbatore	1,50,000	—
Mouni Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Gargoti	—	9,810
Vidya Bhavan Rural Institute, Udaipur	—	10,730
GRAND TOTAL ..	7,71,982	1,11,863

Assessment Committee

The Assessment Committee constituted by the Ministry of Education to assess the progress of the Rural Institutes visited the following Rural Institutes:—

1. Shri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalya Rural Institute, Coimbatore. 24-25th Oct., 1959.
2. Gandhigram Rural Institute, Madurai. 26-27th Oct., 1959.
3. Vidya Bhavan Rural Institute, Udaipur, 5-6th Nov., 1959 and submitted its reports on them.

Standing Committee of the National Council for Rural Higher Education

The Sixth meeting of the Standing Committee of the National Council for Rural Higher Education was held on 27th November, 1959 in New Delhi.

Recognition of Diploma in Rural Services

Besides the Government of India and the State Governments of Bihar, Kerala and Madras, the Diploma in Rural Services awarded by the National Council for Rural Higher Education has also been recognised by the State Governments of Rajasthan, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh, as equivalent to the first degree of a recognised University

for purposes of appointment to posts under them. The Bombay Government has also recognised the Diploma for purposes of appointment to the post of Social Education Organiser under them. The Inter-University Board of India has been requested to consider the recognition of the Diploma for purposes of admission to Universities for Post-Graduate studies.

Recognition of Diploma in Civil and Rural Engineering

The State Governments of Assam, Bihar and the Union territories of Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Manipur and Tripura have so far recognised the Diploma in Civil and Rural Engineering awarded by the National Council for Rural Higher Education for purposes of employment to subordinate posts and services under them.

AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION

Central Film Library

During the period under report, 1,602 films and 14 filmstrips were issued to 295 members of the Central Film Library. 25 new members were enrolled bringing the total membership to 1,301. 83 film shows were conducted by the Mobile Cinema Unit Van. From the 20th to the 27th November, 1959, the Mobile Cinema Unit organised shows in eight villages (Alipur and Mehrauli Blocks).

Fifteen meetings of the Preview Committee were held in which 66 films were previewed.

Unit for the Production of Non-Projected Visual Aids

The chart on 'Cotton Production in India-1956' has been finally prepared and will be printed shortly.

National Institute for Audio-visual Education

The response for admission to the various courses of training to be conducted by the Institute has been very encouraging.

The first short-term training course in audio-visual education will start at the National Institute of Audio-Visual Education, New Delhi, from 10th February 1960 for a period of 2½ months.

Production of Gramophone Records

Experimental work on production of Disc Gramophone Records using the recording equipment supplied by the TCM was carried out and three foreign language teaching records were prepared and presented to the University of Delhi in response to their request.

National Board for Audio-Visual Education

The fourth meeting of the Board was held on 14th December, 1959, under the Chairmanship of Shri R. P. Naik, material produced by the U.P.V.A. was exhibited on the occasion.

Translation of Teaching Notes of Filmstrips into Hindi

Teaching notes of five filmstrips, which include 'The Wool' (Primary Geography Series), 'Kim' and 'Art of Costume' (Pt. I) were translated into Hindi.

Exchange and Dubbing of Films

The Films Division have completed the dubbing of a film 'Lessons in Living'. The Hindi commentary of the film 'Physical Regions of Canada' is being recorded.

It has also been decided to acquire another Canadian film 'Ti Jean Goes Lumbering' under exchange of negatives agreement with the National Film Board of Canada.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisation in the Field of Social Education

Grants of Rs. 4,500 and Rs. 5,000 were sanctioned to the Indian Adult Education Association, New Delhi, for holding a seminar on Organisation and Administration of Social Education and as 2nd instalment

of grant for maintenance of the Clearing House on Social Education.

National Fundamental Education Centre

The National Fundamental Education Centre continued the training course for the 3rd batch of DSEOs till 15th Nov., 1959.

Report on the second research project entitled 'Village Meeting Places and Community Centres' is being written. Data on the third research project on The Reading Habits and Interests of Village People is being analysed.

The Audio-visual Unit of the Centre started the silk screen printing press and printed the emblem of the National Fundamental Education Centre on it. Copies were distributed to the trainees. Further work on the silk screen printing press is now under progress.

Scheme for Setting up of Adult Schools in the Country

A sum of Rs. 60,000 was released to the Jamia Millia Islamia, as fourth instalment for the execution of the scheme of Adult Schools.

Production of Literature for Social Education Workers

Copies of the two booklets 'Teaching Adults to read and write' and 'An Annotated Bibliography of Hindi and Urdu Dramas' prepared by the Idara Talim-O-Taraqqi of Jamia Millia Islamia, were distributed to State Governments, Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation and other prominent persons in the field of Social Education.

National Seminar for Printers

An Unesco-sponsored National Seminar for Printers, Publishers and Booksellers was organised by the Ministry of Education at Bombay, for a period of seven days from 10th November, 1959. Besides four experts, 18 participants selected from the Executives of the printing, publishing and bookselling trades of the country attended the Seminar.

UNESCO Regional Workshop on Book Distribution, Promotion and Market Research

The Government of India played host to the Unesco Regional Workshop on Book Distribution, Promotion and Market Research, at Madras for a period of three weeks in November-December, 1959. The Southern Languages Book Trust cooperated with the Government of India in the organisation of the Seminar. Four to six delegates each from Burma, Ceylon, Iran, India and Pakistan and an observer from Indonesia participated in the deliberations.

Prize Scheme for Books for Neo-literates

Of the 30 books and manuscripts under the 6th competition for books for neo-literates which were awarded prizes of Rs. 500 each, 28 entered the competition for additional awards of similar amounts. Of these, five were selected by the Popular Literature Committee. The results were announced on 26-1-60.

The 7th competition for books for neo-literates in almost all the Indian languages has been announced. The closing date for receipt of entries is 30th April, 1960.

SOCIAL WELFARE AND EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED

Grant to Central Welfare Board

Rs. 35 lakhs was given to the Central Social Welfare Board to enable it to carry on its activities.

Seminar on Organisation and Administration of Social Services

The United Nations Asia and Far East Seminar was inaugurated by the Ministry of Education on the 16th November, 1959, in New Delhi. Delegates from 15 countries of this region participated.

Transfer of Work from Ministry of Home Affairs

The following items of work have been transferred from the Ministry of Home

Affairs to the Ministry of Education on 4th January, 1960 :

- (a) Orphans and Orphanages (as regards administration).
- (b) Social and Moral Hygiene Programmes so far as they relate to women in moral danger, that is to say, Rescue Homes and Reception Centres, including after-care programmes, but excluding—
 - (i) the administration of Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956; and
 - (ii) the establishment and maintenance of Protective Homes;
- (c) Social Welfare Schemes transferred from the Ministry of Rehabilitation to the Ministry of Home Affairs, including the administration of the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate.
- (d) Homes/Infirmaries etc. and outside dolees in respect of West Pakistan displaced persons.

Meeting of the Selection Committee of the Advisory Board on Social Welfare

A meeting of the above Committee was held on 5-1-60 to consider research projects received by the University Grants Commission and the Ministry of Education in Social Work/Social Welfare. The Committee approved one project "A Study about Local Rural Leaders" to be undertaken by the Indian Adult Education Association in case the National Fundamental Education Centre was not able to undertake such a project. A second project "Juvenile Delinquency in Greater Bombay" was approved to be undertaken by the Gujarat Research Society provided similar work had not been done by the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay.

T.C.M. Programme

Under the T.C.M. Programme O.A. No. 44, dealing with the development of social welfare education in India, two experts have joined the schools of social work at Madras and Delhi.

Grants-in-aid to Voluntary Organisations

Rs. 50,000 was released for the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, representing the second instalment of the grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,00,000 sanctioned for the year 1959-60 for the general activities of the Institute.

Rs. 11,000 was sanctioned to the Indian Council of Child Welfare to help them cover the maintenance charges of their Central Office in New Delhi for the year 1958-59.

Rs. 6,084 was sanctioned to the Government of Andhra Pradesh towards the second instalment of the Government of India's grant of Rs. 24,336 sanctioned for the construction of the first floor of the school building of St. Marks' Boys' Town, Namah, Hyderabad.

Rs. 4,000 was given to the All India Women's Conference, New Delhi.

Rehabilitation of Displaced Persons and Students

The educational qualifications of 30 displaced persons have been verified from the records available in this Ministry on references received from the various Ministries and the Punjab University, Chandigarh, during the period under review.

407 displaced students pursuing various courses of studies have been granted financial assistance through the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, involving an expenditure of Rs. 62,541.

Rs. 11,140 has been sanctioned in favour of the Orissa Government for granting financial assistance to displaced students from West Pakistan.

Rs. 840 has been sanctioned in favour of the Bihar Government for granting financial assistance to displaced students from West Pakistan.

Rs. 1,080 has been placed at the disposal of the Honorary Director, Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, for granting financial assistance to four students belonging to indigent families displaced from West Pakistan.

Education of the Handicapped

The 4th meeting of the National Advisory Council for the Education of the Handicapped was held in New Delhi on 7th and 8th December 1959. Some of their major recommendations are as follows:—

- (a) development of training facilities in music for which the Government of India should give financial assistance to the institutions for the blind;
- (b) The Ministry of Education should publish a brochure indicating the trades to be learnt by the blind and other groups of handicapped persons, and the institutions where training facilities in these trades are available;
- (c) The State Governments be requested to appoint an Advisory Council for the Education of the Handicapped on the lines of the National Advisory Council for the Education of the Handicapped;
- (d) The National Advisory Council for the Education of the Handicapped should be reconstituted to include an adequate number of representatives of State Governments; and
- (e) The Ministry should appoint three Committees—one to examine the types of personnel required for manning different categories of institutions for the handicapped and the steps to be taken to arrange for their training; the second, to visit existing schools for mentally retarded children and to suggest measures for the development of facilities for them; and third, to consider development of training facilities for the adult deaf.

YOUTH WELFARE AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Labour and Social Service Camps

A sum of Rs. 3,51,052.69 has been paid as grants to the State Governments, Universities, N.C.C. Directorate of the Ministry of Defence and Voluntary Organisations

like the Bharat Sevak Samaj, the Bharat Scouts & Guides for conducting 52 Labour & Social Service Camps.

Campus Work Projects

A sum of Rs. 10,78,279 has been sanctioned to Universities and State Governments. Out of this amount a sum of Rs. 3,50,000 has been sanctioned as the first instalments for the projects sanctioned during 1959-60, and the balance of Rs. 7,28,279 as the 2nd/3rd instalments of grants for the projects already sanctioned during 1957-58 and 1958-59.

Sports and Games

Rs. 80,000 was sanctioned in favour of the Secretary, Rajkumari Sports Coaching Scheme for meeting the expenditure on the Scheme.

Rs. 1,883.10 was sanctioned in favour of the President, National Rifle Association, India, to meet the salary of the paid Assistant Secretary of the Association.

Rs. 1,660 was paid to the All India Women's Hockey Association for meeting the deficit on their National Championships held in October, 1958.

Rs. 74,000 was sanctioned in favour of the President, Services Sports Control Board, New Delhi, for the organisation of XIX National Games in New Delhi from 25th February to 28th February, 1960.

Rs. 25,000 was paid to the All India Lawn Tennis Association to cover the deficit on the Asian Championships held at Calcutta in December, 1959.

Grants of Rs. 2,252 and Rs. 5,000 were paid to cover part of the deficit on the National Championship held at Ajmer and the deficit on the organisation of the Women's Hockey Championship in November, 1959, to the All India Women's Hockey Association.

Rs. 244 was paid to the Kerala Sports Council to meet the arrears of salary of the Assistant Paid Secretary of the State Sports Council.

Rs. 22,500 was paid to the Government of Mysore for the construction of a Stadium by the Y.M.C.A. Bangalore.

Rs. 5,000 was sanctioned in favour of the Indian Polo Association for the sinking of a tubewell in the Jaipur Polo Ground by the Delhi Polo Club.

Rs. 2,262 was sanctioned to the Gymnastic Federation of India to meet the cost of air passage to Moscow for two participants in the International Students' Gymnastic Contests.

Rs. 11,816.96 and Rs. 40,000 were paid to the Indian Hockey Federation for meeting the expenditure on the holding of a Coaching Camp in September, 1959—and for meeting the cost of air passages of the Indian Hockey Team to West Germany and certain West European countries.

The following grants were paid to State Governments for the acquisition of playing fields :

<i>State Government</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Orissa	24,000
Madhya Pradesh	40,000
West Bengal	1,20,500
Bihar	80,500
Kerala	56,000
Bombay	1,28,500
Punjab	80,500
Uttar Pradesh	1,12,500
Madras	72,500
Rajasthan	32,000
Andhra Pradesh	56,500
Mysore	40,500
Assam	40,000
J. & K.	16,000

Rs. 1,88,792 has also been sanctioned to the Government of U.P. for the construction of the Lucknow Stadium.

All India Council of Sports

The next meeting of the All India Council of Sports and a Joint Meeting of the Presidents and Secretaries of the Sports Federations/Associations and State Sports Councils and the members of the All India Council of Sports will be held in New Delhi on 27th and 29th February, 1960 respectively.

On the sad demise of Maharaj Kumar Duleep Singh Ji, His Highness the Maharaja of Patiala has been appointed President of the All India Council of Sports.

A meeting of the Location Committee for the Central Institute of Coaching was held on 29th January, 1960.

Scheme of Strengthening Physical Education Training Institutions

Rs. 11,055 have been sanctioned to 12 Physical Education Training Institutions in Bombay, Mysore and Madras States for developmental expenditure of non-recurring nature, viz., development of playgrounds, purchase of library books and equipment etc., in accordance with recommendations made by the concerned Visiting Committee on the Development and Improvement of the Institutions.

The report of the Visiting Committee for Physical Education Training Institutions of the Northern and Eastern Region has also been received and their recommendations for payments of grants to the institutions concerned for improvement and development of facilities have been approved by the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation at its meeting held on 11-11-1959. The institutions have now been advised to forward their detailed proposals to this Ministry on the basis of the Committee's recommendations.

National Physical Efficiency Drive

On the recommendations of the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation, the Government of India have approved a scheme for launching a National Physical Efficiency Drive on the basis of precise and carefully graded Physical Efficiency Tests. The aim is to popularize the cult of physical fitness throughout the country and to arouse enthusiasm of the people for higher standards of physical efficiency and achievement. The "Drive" will be launched formally on a country-wide basis during the 2nd Week of February, 1960.

400 testing centres will be set up under the scheme during 1959-60 in different

parts of the country and the allotment of these Centres on State-wise basis has also been made.

Rs. 1,20,000 at the rate of Rs. 300 per centre has also been given to the State Governments for setting up Centres and conducting the tests. An illustrated brochure giving details of the scheme as well as the tests has been brought out by the Ministry.

Tests have been drawn up separately for Men and Women for two age group, viz., Juniors (below 18 years) and Seniors (18 years and above). Each of the four test categories has three standards laid down from moderately easy to fairly difficult, viz., One star, two stars and three stars. Certificates of merit will be awarded to successful competitors according to their achievements.

Scholarships for Study of and Research in Indigenous Physical Activities

The Research Sub-Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation recommended the award of two Scholarships one each in Yogic Physical Culture, and Lathi Lezim and Malkamb. Each scholarship carries a value of Rs. 200 p.m. and is tenable for 12 months. The Scholarships have been awarded.

Seminars on Physical Education

The Third All India Seminar was organised for experts and organisers in Indigenous Physical Activities at Bangalore from 6th to 11th October, 1959. The report of the seminar is awaited.

Miscellaneous Measures for Promotion of Physical Education

The following grants have been sanctioned.

1. K.S.M.Y.M. Samity, Lonavala Rs. 22,424	Second and third instalments of the Government of India contribution for the recurring expenditure for 1959-60.
2. K.S.M.Y.M. Samiti, Lonavala Rs. 1,780	To cover net expenditure on the short term certificate course on Yoga in 1959.
3. Vishwayatan Yoga Ashram, New Delhi	Rs. 20,000	To meet recurring expenditure of the Delhi Centre for 1958-59.
4. Lakshmibai College of Physical Education, Gwalior	Rs. 1,000	To meet the expenditure on the preparation of a Bibliography of Physical Education, Sports and Recreation Literature.

Lakshmibai College of Physical Education, Gwalior

Rs. 1,30,000 has been sanctioned to the Board of Governors of the above College to meet its expenditure during 1959-60.

Inter-University Youth Festival

The 6th Inter-University Youth Festival was conducted by the University of Mysore from 7th to 16th December, 1959. Government of India have released the 2nd instalment of Rs. 1,26,000 making a total of Rs. 3.00 lakhs out of the approved expenditure of Rs. 3.48 lakhs for this event. It

was for the first time that the responsibility of organising the Inter-University Youth Festival was entrusted to a University.

Inter-Collegiate Youth Festivals

Grants have been sanctioned to the following Universities to meet 50 per cent of the expenditure on Inter-Collegiate Festivals.

	Rs.
Osmania	1,231
Utkal	3,807
Rajasthan	5,000
Total	10,038

These grants are to enable the Universities to select contingents for the Inter-University Youth Festival.

Students Tours

Grants amounting to Rs. 14,351 have been sanctioned to 17 institutions in the country and nearly 300 students are expected to be benefited by them.

Youth Welfare Boards and Committees

The University of Jadavpur has been given a grant of Rs. 3,520 to meet 50 per cent of the administrative expenditure for setting up Youth Welfare Boards and Committees.

Bal Bhavan

A grant of Rs. 2,50,000 has been sanctioned for the construction of their building.

National Discipline Scheme

The National Discipline Scheme is implemented by the Ministry as a part of the Educational Development Programme under the Second Five Year Plan.

It has so far been extended to 622 schools/institutions in Delhi and in the States of Punjab, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Bombay, Jammu & Kashmir and

West Bengal with over 3,00,000 children under-training.

As a first step towards further expansion of the Scheme in Rajasthan, 150 Instructors have been recruited and are being trained at Alwar.

Expenditure in connection with the implementation of the Scheme up to January during the current financial year amounted to Rs. 9.89 lakhs against a budget provision of Rs. 16.00 lakhs.

PROPAGATION OF HINDI AND EVOLVING OF TECHNICAL TERMINOLOGY

Free Gifts of Hindi Books

Eleven books has been selected for purchase of 10,150 copies each for presentation to libraries.

Hindi Teachers' Training College

Rs. 15,020 has been paid to the Government of Andhra Pradesh for opening a Hindi Teachers' Training College in the State.

Payment of grants to Hindi Organisations

The following grants have been sanctioned during the period under report:

Name of the Organisations	Amount	Purpose
Andhra University, Waltair	2,150 (2nd Instalment)	For morpho-phonemic analysis of Telugu languages out of the total approved amount of Rs. 8,600.
Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Allahabad ..	10,500 (2nd Instalment)	For preparation of English-Hindi Dictionary, the total grant being Rs. 42,000.
Secretary, Akhil Bhartiya Hindi Parishad, Agra.	42,777	For training of Hindi teachers from non-Hindi speaking areas.
Secretary, Government of Mysore Education Department, Bangalore.	8,925	For opening additional free Hindi classes during 1959-60.

Name of the Organisation	Amount	Purpose
Honorary, General Secretary, Nagari Pracharini Sabha, Varanasi.	5,000	For preparation of History of Languages and Literature. The total approved amount is Rs. 20,000.
General Secretary, all India Publisher's Association, Delhi.	1,500	For holding a seminar on publishing and book trade in Delhi.
President, Hindi Bhawan, New Delhi ..	2,948	For their Hindi Library.

Preparation of Hindi Encyclopaedia

Rs. 25,000 has been given to the Nagari Pracharini Sabha, Varanasi, for the preparation of Hindi Encyclopaedia during the quarter under report. This is the 8th instalment of Rs. 7.0 lakhs sanctioned for the purpose.

Preparation of Manuals on the Basis of Terminology Evolved

Manuals on Medicine, Education (General) Education (Psychology), Commerce and Zoology have been completed and are now under examination.

Lecture Tours by Prominent Hindi Scholars and Writers

Four lecture tours to the State of West Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and Madhya Pradesh were organised during the period.

Holding of Seminars of Hindi Teachers

A seminar of Hindi teachers was held at Udaipur.

Revival of Sanskrit

Rs. 1.0 lakh was sanctioned during the quarter under review to the Sanskrit Dictionary Department, Deccan College Post-Graduate Research Institute, Poona, for preparation of Sanskrit Dictionary of Historical Principles.

Hindi Shorthand

A meeting with the representatives of the Hindi Speaking States was held at New Delhi on 16th November, 1959 in connection with the adoption of a system of shorthand for training English stenographers in

Government employment into Hindi shorthand. The recommendations are under consideration.

Translation of Standard Books of University Level into Hindi

List of books in Zoology and Medicine have been finalised during the quarter under review.

Board of Scientific Terminology

A list of words common to Hindi and other Regional languages, i.e., Hindi Assamese, has been printed.

A total number of 1,99,416 terms have been evolved and 1,19,102 terms have been approved by the Expert Committees upto 31-1-60.

Hindi Typewriter and Teleprinter Key-Boards Committee

The Hindi Typewriter and Teleprinter Committee set up by the Government of India to evolve key-boards for Hindi Typewriter and Teleprinter had submitted its report suggesting key-boards for both the typewriter and the teleprinter. In view of the latest decision of the Government in regard to Reform in Devanagari Script the Committee has been requested to make necessary change in key-boards.

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR STUDIES ABROAD

Government of India Schemes

Foreign Languages Scholarships Scheme, 1959-60

Selections for 15 scholarships are being finalised. No suitable candidates were

forthcoming for Italian and Turkish languages.

Partial Financial Assistance (Loan) Scheme

Applications from 12 students were received. Loans amounting to Rs. 24,669.53 have been sanctioned. Rs. 14,910 has been recovered from students who were given loans in the past.

Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes Overseas Scholarships Scheme, 1958-59

Of the total of 12 candidates selected, awards in respect of 11 have been announced. Of these four have left for the U.S.A. The award to one candidate has yet to be finalised.

Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes Scheme—Passage Grants, 1959-60

Of the total of four other Backward Classes candidates who have been selected, two have gone abroad.

Union Territories Overseas Scholarship, 1960-61

Applications for the scholarship have been invited by 14-3-1960.

Programme for Exchange of Scholarship between India and Rumania, 1960-61

Applications for two scholarships have been invited by 29-2-60.

Awards made by Foreign Government/International Organisations/Institutions

Belgian Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of two scholarships is under consideration.

British Council Scholarships

All the 14 candidates selected for 1959-60 have left for the U.K. Applications for ten scholarships have been invited for 1960-61.

Canadian Council Fellowships, 1960-61

The selections are in progress.

Danish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of two scholarships is under consideration.

French Government Scholarships, 1959-60

The remaining one scholar has left for France.

Hague Academy of International Law Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of one to two scholarships has been published. Applications are to reach the Academy direct by 1-4-1960.

Indian Women's Education Association, London, Scholarship, 1960-61

The offer of one scholarship for an Indian woman graduate has been published. Applications are to reach the Association direct by 1-3-1960.

Imperial Relations Trust (London University, Institute of Education) Fellowships

The remaining one fellow for 1959-60 has left for the U.K. The offer of two fellowships for 1960-61 is under consideration.

Italian Government Scholarship, 1959-60

The selected candidate has left for Italy.

Norwegian Government Scholarships

The candidate selected for 1959-60 has left for Norway. An offer of one scholarship for 1960-61 is under consideration.

Ridgefield Foundation (USA) Scholarship, 1959-60

The selected candidate has left for the U.S.A.

U.N. Social Welfare Fellowships/Scholarships Programme, 1960-61.

The offer of five Fellowships is under consideration.

UNESCO-Czech Government Fellowships, 1960-61

The offer of 24 Fellowships is under consideration.

UNESCO-Thai Government Fellowships, 1960-61

The selections for two Fellowships have been finalised.

FOR STUDIES IN INDIA

(i) For Foreign Nationals

Government of India Schemes

French Fellowships Scheme, 1959-61

One fellowship out of the total of three, has been utilised by extending the period of fellowship of a French Fellow who is already studying in India under the 1957-59 Scheme. Nominations for the remaining two Fellowships are awaited from the French Government.

General Scholarships Scheme

Five more scholars for 1959-60 joined their institutions of study bringing the total to 111.

Of the total of 140 scholarships to be awarded for 1960-61, selections for 106 scholarships have been made.

Programme for Exchange of Scholars between India and Rumania, 1960-61

Nominations for two scholarships have been invited from the Rumanian Government through the Indian Embassy in Rumania.

Reciprocal Scholarships Scheme, 1958-59

Two more scholarships have been awarded to Rumanian Students; they are studying in India.

Scholarships to Bhutanese Students, 1959-60

One more student has been awarded a scholarship for 'School study'; he has joined his institution bringing the total to ten.

Scholarships to Sikkimese Students, 1959-60

One more scholar has been awarded a scholarship for Degree/Diploma course; he

has joined his institution of study bringing the total to six.

Scholarship/Fellowships to Students from South, South-East Asian and other Countries under The Colombo Plan, 1959-60

Five more students from Nepal have joined their institutions of study.

(ii) For Indian Nationals.

Merit Scholarships in Public Schools, 1959-60

The names of the 60 candidates selected have been announced.

Research Scholarships in Humanities, 1959-60

The selections for 100 scholarships are in progress.

Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes Scholarship Scheme for post-Matriculation Studies

The funds available for 1959-60 have been placed at the disposal of the State Governments/Union Administrations for the award of these scholarships.

Post-Matric Merit Scholarships Scheme, 1959-60

Selections for 197 scholarships, out of the total of 200, have been finalised. All the selected candidates are prosecuting their studies in their respective institutions.

Scholarships for Higher Studies in Hindi to Students from the non-Hindi Speaking States, 1959-60

Selections for 67 scholarships out of the total of 110, have been finalised. All the selected candidates are prosecuting studies in their respective institutions of study.

UNESCO ACTIVITIES

Second Meeting of the National Advisory Committee

The Second Meeting of the National Advisory Committee for the Unesco Major

Project on Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values, was held on 24th August, 1959 at New Delhi. The Committee made several recommendations relating to India's participation in the Major Project, the more important among which are the following:—

- (i) The National Commission should conduct a survey of the present activities relating to the Major Project now being carried on at the National level by various Universities, Institutions, and Organisations, working in the fields of Education, Science and Culture.
- (ii) Cooperation of Universities and other Learning Institutions including the India International Centre should be enlisted for carrying out programmes in the sphere of the Major Project.
- (iii) A suitably illustrated pamphlet describing the main features of the National Culture and the present day life in the country should be prepared for school libraries in Eastern and Western countries.
- (iv) Inexpensive visual materials on the various aspects of Indian Culture should be assembled for use in Western Schools.
- (v) A National meeting of teachers and experts should be convened to discuss educational methods most likely to develop understanding of cultures in different regions.
- (vi) The National Commission should organise an 'East-West Week' designed to popularise and further the objectives of the Project among the general public.
- (vii) An exhibition, consisting of photographs and models on various Indian topics from material available in Indian Museums should be assembled for circulation in India and Abroad.
- (viii) One or two monographs on specific aspects of the India Art and

Archaeology, should be prepared for the Western Public.

Executive Board of the Indian National Commission for Cooperation with UNESCO

The ninth meeting of the Executive Board of the Indian National Commission for Cooperation with Unesco was held at New Delhi on 20th October, 1959. Among other things, the Board considered Unesco's preliminary proposals for their programme and Budget for 1961-62 and recommended that the Chairman should appoint a small Committee to review the constitution of the Commission. The Chairman has since appointed a Committee for that purpose.

Visit of the Director-General and other Officials of UNESCO

During the period under review, Dr. Vittorino Veronese, the Director-General of UNESCO visited Delhi. A number of senior officials of Unesco also visited the Capital. They included Dr. M. S. Adiseshiah, Assistant Director-General, who accompanied the Director-General; Prof. T. H. Marshall, Director, Social Sciences Department; Dr. M. R. Salat, Director, Cultural Activities Department; and Mr. Tor Gjesdal, Chief, Mass Communication Department of Unesco.

Regional Conference of Representatives of National Commissions for UNESCO in Asia.

The Unesco National Commission of the Philippines, with assistance from Unesco, organised the Regional Conference at Manila from 18th to 23rd January, 1960. Its purpose was to enable the Representatives of the National Commissions in East and South Asia to exchange views on how they were cooperating with Unesco in implementing the programmes of the Organization in their respective countries. Dr. V. S. Jha, Vice-Chancellor, Banaras Hindu University and Dr. S. M. S. Chari, Assistant Educational Adviser to the Government of India were deputed by the Indian National Commission to attend this Conference.

UNESCO Regional Seminar on Publications for Schools to be held in Wellington (New Zealand) in February, 1960

India has decided to participate in the above seminar being held in Wellington from 1st to 26th February, 1960. Prof. C. S. Bhandari, Director, Central Pedagogical Institute, Allahabad (U.P.) has been nominated by the Indian National Commission for Unesco, in consultation with the U.P. Government, to attend the Seminar.

Sixth Session of the Advisory Committee of the UNESCO Research Centre, Calcutta

The Sixth meeting of the Advisory Committee of the Unesco Research Centre on the Social Implications of industrialization in Southern Asia, Calcutta, was held at Calcutta on 12-13th November, 1959. Among other things, the Committee considered the question of the future of the Centre and recommended that the Centre should be continued after 1960.

UNESCO Regional Refresher Course for Sociologists in Southern Asia

Unesco organised the Regional Refresher Course for Sociologists in Southern Asia at the Institute of Social Sciences, Agra University, Agra, from 21st December, 1959 to 9th January, 1960.

Participants from Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Malaya, Pakistan, Singapore, British Borneo Group, Thailand and Vietnam were invited by Unesco to attend this Course. At Unesco's request, the Government of India acted as host. Prof. T. B. Bottomore, reader in Sociology at the London School of Economics and Physical Science and the Executive Secretary of the International Sociological Association, London, was the Scientific Director of the Course. He was assisted by Prof. Shils of Chicago University and Prof. M. N. Srinivas of Delhi University.

The following candidates were sponsored by the Government of India to attend this Course:

1. Dr. N. Prasad, Reader in Sociology, Patna University, Patna.

2. Dr. I. P. Desai, Professor of Sociology, M. S. University of Baroda, Baroda.
3. Dr. D. N. Majumdar, Lucknow University, Lucknow.
4. Dr. S. C. Dube, Saugar University, Saugar.

Translation—Adaptation of UNESCO Publications into Hindi and other Indian Languages

With the financial assistance from Unesco, the Commission have got that Organisation's book entitled 'UNESCO SOURCE BOOK FOR SCIENCE TEACHING' translated into Hindi by Dr. Gorakh Prasad of Varanasi. The Commission have also concluded contracts with Unesco with regard to the translation, etc. of the following publications:—

1. The Teaching of Reading and Writing (in Tamil).
2. The Provision of Popular Reading Materials (Hindi).
3. Education in Racial and Intergroup Relations (Hindi).

UNESCO Prizes on Books for new reading public

In accordance with the contract concluded between Unesco and the Indian National Commission, the Organisation had undertaken to pay for ten Unesco prizes to authors of the best books intended for the new reading public published in 1957-58 and written in Tamil, Hindi, Bengali and Urdu. The Committee set up for this purpose, approved six books, four in Hindi and two in Bengali for the award of prizes.

UNESCO system of Associated Youth Enterprises

Unesco, under its approved Programme and Budget for 1959-60, invited Member States to recommend suitable projects for inclusion in the above System. Under this Scheme, the Organization provides assistance in the form of documentations etc. and also special assistance—financial as

well as in the form of expert missions—to the selected projects. From India a project entitled 'Special Extension Work among Younger age Groups (12—20 years)' suggested by the Uttar Pradesh Government has been recommended to Unesco for inclusion in the above System.

World Confederation of Teaching Profession—Regional Centre in India for Asia

The Organization has been permitted to set up their Regional Office at New Delhi according to their request.

Training Courses/Symposia Organised by UNESCO Science Cooperation Office, New Delhi

The Unesco South Asia Science Cooperation Office, New Delhi, organised the following courses which were attended by personnel from India as well as other countries.

- (i) Training Course in the Use of Radio Isotopes in Agricultural Research at the Indian Agricultural Research Institute, Delhi (20th January to 17th February, 1960).
- (ii) Training Course for Laboratory Technicians organised jointly by the University Institute of Chemistry, Lahore and Unesco (December, 1959, Lahore, Pakistan).
- (iii) Symposium of "ALGOLOGY" held at New Delhi (7th to 12th December, 1959).

UNESCO Fellowships

Under Unesco's Technical Assistance Programme (1958) Mrs. Agnes Cooper-Dennis, Staff Member, University of Liberia arrived in India in January, 1960, for study and training at the various Universities and Institutions in this country, for a period of about two months.

Under Unesco's Participation Programme for 1959-1960, Mr. Abuseid Musa, Visual Aids Officer, Ministry of Education, Khartoum (Sudan) and Mr. Mukhtar Ahmed Yousif, Senior Adult Education Officer (Sudan) arrived in India in early January for study/work for a period

of two months in the field of Adult Education.

UNESCO Questionnaires

In response to Unesco's request, information to the Unesco Questionnaires concerning statistical data on radio and television broadcasting and enquiry on discrimination in the field of education has been sent to Unesco.

EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION AND PUBLICATIONS

Information

During the quarter ending 30th January, 1960, 2,789 receipts including 2,088 enquiries on facilities available in fields of Education in India and abroad were dealt with. 359 persons visited the section for various informative notes and reference to the Catalogues/Calendars of the Universities/Institutions in India and Abroad.

Information on 35 items on different subjects of educational interest was collected/revised/complied during the period under review.

Publications

The following publications have been brought out during the period under report.

1. Decentralisation of the Scheme of Scholarships for Scheduled Castes/Tribes and Other Backward Classes.
2. Report of the Seminar on Orientation of Elementary Schools towards the Basic Pattern.
3. Planning Schools for India.
4. Education Quarterly, December, 1959 issue.
5. A Draft revised Syllabus for Secondary Teachers Training.
6. Proceedings of the 26th meeting of the CABE.
7. Report of the Committee on Religious and Moral Instruction.
8. Address of Dr. K. L. Shrimali—Education Minister, on the occasion of the National award for Teachers Function, 1960.

9. Youth December, 1959—issue.
10. Report of the Hindi Typewriter and Teleprinter Committee, Part II.
11. Presidential Address of Dr. Shrimali on the occasion of the 27th meeting of the C.A.B.E.
12. New Pattern of Secondary Education—A Symposium.
13. Report of the Rural Education Committee.

1,651 copies of publications were sold at the Casual Sales Depot of the Ministry during the period under review.

Educational Statistics

Scrutiny and Reconciliation of Statistics

Statistics for the year 1957-58 of 11 States were received on Form 'A' and of 8 Universities on Form 'B'. These were scrutinised. Besides, the statistics of Centrally Administered Institutions were also checked.

Seminar and In-Service Training Courses in Educational Statistics

In order to standardise the procedure and schedule of collection etc. of educational statistics relating to University Education, a three-day Seminar was organised in November, 1959 in which 20 Supervisory Officers from 19 Universities participated. The recommendations of the Seminar are under consideration.

With a view to improving the reliability and the timely supply of educational data received from the Universities, and to increase the professional competence of the staff working in the Universities and affiliated/constituent colleges, short In-Service training courses in Educational Statistics were conducted at Srinagar and Hyderabad at the request of the Universities of Jammu and Kashmir and Osmania respectively. About 30 Officials attended the course at Srinagar and 40 at Hyderabad.

Statistical Enquiries

69 Statistical enquiries were attended to during the period under review.

The Central Working Group on Education for the Third Five-Year Plan

Draft annual educational development programmes of States and Union Territories for the year 1960-61 were discussed in November, 1959 to January 1960.

2. According to the existing procedure, three-fourths of the estimated Central assistance has been released by the Ministry of Finance to the State Governments in the form of lumpsum Ways and Means Advances in nine equal monthly instalments. The final payment sanction against which the aforesaid advances are to be adjusted will be released by the end of February or early March, 1960 on the basis of actuals for the first nine months and the anticipated expenditure for the remaining three months of the year 1959-60 to be furnished by the State Governments.

3. The Central Working Group on Education, constituted for the preparation of the Third Five Year Plan, considered the reports of its various Committees. The report of the Group is being finalised.

NATIONAL ARCHIVES OF INDIA

Acquisition

32 authenticated copies of Bills of States assented to by the President, 16 volumes of records, 1,143 files and 49 reels of microfilm and collection of 7 personal letters of Dr. N. B. Khare (sent as a gift by Dr. Khare) were received. 65 documents (1772—1897) of Indian interest were purchased from Dr. Edward Hall of Gravesend, England. 166 manuscripts and documents and 87 books were accessioned and 725 periodicals etc. registered.

Repair and Rehabilitation

Special mention may be made of the repair and binding of a Hindi manuscript of "Ramayana" for Sanskrit University, Varanasi, repair of 31 sheets of original letters of Gandhiji's correspondence with Shri Magan Lal Gandhi and the lamination and binding of four volumes of the "Indian Opinion" for Shri Pyare Lal.

Technical Services and Advisory Work

Photo-duplication service was rendered, among other, to the Union Public Service Commission, the Chairman of the Punjab State Committee of the History of Freedom Movement in India, the Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, the International Academy of Indian Culture, the Khuda Baksh Library, Patna, the International Red Cross Society and Dr. Kruagar of West Germany.

Photo-Duplication

The microfilming of records of the series "Home Revenue Proceedings" was continued and 30,991 exposures were made. The microfilming of rare and precious manuscripts from the Raza Library, Rampur was also continued. Besides, 1,414 enlarged prints, 3,846 photostat copies and 581 positive prints were prepared and 108 reels of microfilm checked.

Publications

Further progress was made in printing volumes IV, VI and IX of the Fort William India House Correspondence, volume XI of *The Indian Archives*, Part I of the volume on "Selections from Educational Records", and the volume on Browne Correspondence. Progress was maintained in editing the text of volume XIV of the Fort William India House Correspondence. Preparation of an index to the Foreign and Political Department's records (1781-83) and collection of material for Part II of the volume on "Selections from Educational

Records" were continued. The Annual Report of the National Archives of India for the year 1957 was published and that of 1958 was sent to press. Revision of the typescript of volume XI (1794-95) and calendaring of volume XII (1796-97) of the Calendar of Persian Correspondence were also continued. 35 seals found on Persian documents of the Department were catalogued. Illustrations for inclusion in the brochure on Indian seals were prepared and sent to press.

Indian Historical Records Commission

Part I of volume XXXIV of the Indian Historical Records Commission proceedings was published and distribution of its copies started.

Exhibits of the National Archives of India were displayed at the 22nd session of the Indian History Congress held at Gauhati from the 27th to 29th December, 1959.

Training in Archives Science

Practical training in Record Administration was imparted to the Diploma Course Trainees.

Research Fellowship Scheme

One more selected candidate joined the National Archives of India Fellowship scheme and started his work.

Exhibition

90 visitors were shown round the Department.

Readers may please note that the issues of THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY will now be dated according to the seasons of the year instead of the months.

Welcome Speech to the Tenth World Education Conference

Delivered on the occasion of the Valedictory Address by Dr. Rajendra Prasad, President of India, to the Tenth World Education Conference held at New Delhi on 6th January, 1960

RASHTRAPATIJI AND FRIENDS,

It is my high privilege to extend on behalf of all the delegates and participants of this Conference a respectful welcome to you, Sir, as the President of India. Your participation in this Valedictory function is an honour that we deeply appreciate—it means to us your symbolic partnership in this modest but noble Fellowship of men and women of many different countries.

And yet I ask myself: Is that really so? Is it merely a 'symbolic partnership' signified by the grace of your presence here this afternoon? That may have been true if we were welcoming only the President of the State but we are also welcoming in our Chief Guest that distinguished humanist and man of goodness and culture who is affectionately known to hundreds of millions in India and abroad as Rajen Babu. Is it not perhaps true, in a deeper sense, that you have been a member of this Fellowship, of the basic idea of this Fellowship, even before it came formally into being? The two ingredients of this organisation are Fellowship and New Education and to which of them have you been a stranger? May I venture to claim that you have always believed in the concept of *Fellowship*—the equal kinship of all men and women in the pursuit of certain common goals and ideals. For thirty hectic but glorious years Mahatma Gandhi laboured to build up one of the greatest Fellowships of this or any other century—a fellowship of high purpose and selfless striving, which acknowledged no distinction of race or creed or colour or bias of any kind, except a bias in favour of the weak and the poor, the oppressed and the under-

privileged, the women and the children whose service was his highest ambition. You were, almost from the outset, a prominent member and worker of this Fellowship. It worked devotedly in the cause not only of national freedom but also of the freedom of man and groups from cruel fetters of their own making—fetters which turn the gracious promise of life into a sordid tragedy. The fruits of this struggle, for many years, were blood and sweat and toil and tears and long respites in goal. But I have always held—and I hope you, with your close and intimate relationship to this drama, will agree with me—that behind the dust and din of this political battle burnt the candles of many cherished ideals which external storms and stresses could not put out. And, while the common man often saw the external trappings of the struggle, the inspiration behind it was faith in the eventual triumph—or at least the possibility of the eventual triumph—of right, of the emergence of the good individual and the good social order. I respectfully present this Fellowship to you, Sir, as broadly interested in the same kind of ideals and values about man's life and destiny as inspired Gandhiji in his work and of which, two years ago, some of us heard you give a brilliant expose before the East-West Symposium held at Delhi under the auspices of Unesco. What about the second ingredient, Education? Those of us who have the privilege of knowing you or have read your writings and speeches know that, like some of your very distinguished comrades in this Gandhian Fellowship like the Prime Minister, you are at heart not a politician but an educationist, interested in the world of the mind and in changing persons from within. "Verily", says the Quran, "God does not alter the condition of a people unless they change what is in their hearts", i.e., change their inner selves. Politics and Economics control the external environment of our life; education primarily seeks to change the

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inner man. You will be interested to learn that, in this Conference and the Seminar that preceded it, we adopted certain new but tested techniques of free, personal discussion whose object primarily was not to add to the technical knowledge of the participants but to kindle interest, to promote cooperative thinking and, to some extent, change their inner attitudes and approaches. I am told by many of the participants that, in this effort, we have had a reasonable measure of success. Thus in the field of education, too, I may venture to claim for this Fellowship a certain affinity of objectives as well as approach with you.

We call this organisation the *New Education Fellowship* and there have been some comments and criticisms about the use of this adjective and the proposal that it may be dropped. This is obviously a matter for the Fellowship to decide in a democratic way. But, if I may say so, while I respect the criticism, I do not quite agree with it. So long as life goes on changing and progressing—and when has it changed more radically and massively?—education must retain a *dynamic* character. This is not to deny that life has its basic truths and that these eternal varieties profoundly matter. But, throughout history, life has spun its warp and woof out of the old as well as the new—with its roots in the soil and its shoots and branches hungering for the sun and the sky, stretching themselves vigorously in all directions. I am confident that, in the years ahead, life will go on flinging its challenges, more quickly and bewilderingly than ever, before educationists and some of them will wear new faces. We cannot shy away from these challenges nor can we meet all of them moving on the crutches of old methods and old customs. Even as you see in the India of your dreams an amalgam of what is good in the past and what may be good and life-giving in the present and the future, so must we move hopefully towards, what I may call, growing points in education. Our high purpose is to win over man's rich inner resources to cooperate creatively with all promising social trends and forces in building up the world of our dreams. We may or may not

call this Education 'New' but the element of 'newness' is built into the very concept of Education.

There are two activities to which Education can be most appropriately compared—gardening and spreading the light. You, Sir, who have one of the finest gardens in India, must witness every day the joy and thrill that comes to a gardener when he helps young plants to grow straight and flowers to put on their glorious plumage. So does the good teacher as he initiates his young children into new segments of truth, goodness and beauty, as he sees their tottering steps graduate into the graceful movements of a dance or their lisping tongues put on the flaming oratory of an Abul Kalam Azad. This is a heart warming task. It is also a heart breaking task sometimes. As my distinguished friend and our great educationist, Dr. Zakir Husain, once remarked, education is often like ploughing the sands where one works devotedly for decades and sees no results. We are not afraid even of ploughing the sands because we have seen that, by the intelligent application of science and technology, even deserts have blossomed into gardens. We are rash enough or naive enough or optimistic enough to believe that we *can* pit the power of right ideas and emotions against the devil's impressive allies and the magic of love and understanding against the menace of the Atom Bomb. We have no doubt that the inspiration of the right ideals and the application of the right social and psychological techniques can also transform the mental and emotional deserts that play havoc with the life of children and adults. But there is one request, one respectful demand that we as educationists must make of the politicians and statesmen of the world—especially those who belong to the tribe of Peace like yourself. Give us a chance to show what is possible—give us Peace! Political stupidity, economic greed, ideological fanaticism, trigger-happy fingers, foolish fatalism, megalomania—any one of this unlovely brood can start a war and reduce all our quiet and creative work, all our psychological and educational depth charges to futility. If peace and inter-

national understanding do not triumph, not only our humble efforts at gardening but the whole future of mankind is doomed.

In another sense, education is like the kindling of light in the hearts and minds of men and women in order to dispel the darkness of fears and suspicions and prejudices in which most of them live. In his New Year greeting card, Pandit Nehru has quoted this arresting sentence from Buddha's medallion: "A lamp has the unique quality of being able to light another lamp without losing any of its own brilliance". Thus can the sensitive teacher, who is aglow with the light of truth and goodness, share it with thousands of children without dimming it in the least. In fact, the flame would burn all the more brightly through the magic of sharing. This is his real job, provided he has the light within. I am reminded of a beautiful phrase which occurs in the Gospel according to Thomas which was recently discovered after long centuries in an unknown Egyptian village. Jesus said: "Within a man of light there is light and he lights the whole world". We teachers are but poor vessels and our lights are feeble and flickering. We cannot obviously light the world but, even if we light a few candles within our respective spheres, can we not start a mighty chain reaction? There is one significant difference, however, in the burning of the candle and the fire in which the teacher burns. This is brought out beautifully in a couplet by one of our great lyrical poets, Jigar Moradabadi, which I would like to share with you:

خود اپنی آگ میں جلتی ہے شمع جلنے دو
پڑائی آگ میں جلتا ہے کارِ مردانہ

"The candle burns in its own fire—
let it burn,

The triumph and glory of man is to
burn in the fire of others".

In the life of the teacher, whether in the lonely village or at some famous cosmopolitan University, the accent is on service to others, on abolishing the rigid frontiers which divide his personal ego from them and to produce men and women who will not be encased in their hard and separate egos like billiard balls but be a part of the sensitive stream of life.

May I, in conclusion, apologise to you for having been a rather unsatisfactory President? Personal indisposition and a bout of illness in the family have prevented me from giving as much time and attention to the Conference as I should have done. I would also like to thank all those, from office boys to organising Secretaries—and their number is legion—and the Indian Section of the New Education Fellowship whose cooperation has made this Conference possible and successful. To all our delegates, particularly from outside, I offer my affectionate greetings as well as sincere apologies for any shortcomings in the arrangements that we have been able to make for their comfort. This is a Fellowship and will you in that spirit accept the words of the Persian proverb, "whatever comes from a friend is good"? I hope the impact of this Conference will be felt both in India and other countries for many years to come and the Fellowship itself will feel that, as a result of its deliberations here, it steps into a new and vigorous lease of life.

Introducing Compulsory Primary Education

NOTWITHSTANDING the substantial progress of education since Independence, as is evident from the annual educational reports, there can be no illusion regarding the formidable task still ahead in reaching the imperative goal of universal, free and compulsory education for all up to the age of 14 years. Illiteracy and ignorance of the masses, their economic condition and the manner of distribution of the population in the rural areas make the problem much more formidable. Moreover the progress so far made is mostly in towns and cities and in comparatively bigger and well-placed rural habitations and hence what remains to be achieved, is in reality much more difficult in view of the special problems that are likely to arise in each of these far-flung, tiny, backward villages and their hamlets. In areas where schools have already been started, it is the more obstinate and problem cases that remain to be tackled in regard to enrolment and regular attendance in the school and would put the teacher's and the local administrator's ingenuity and capacity to the utmost test.

No doubt compulsory free primary education needs to be introduced everywhere as early as possible. But if it is introduced haphazardly without completing the necessary preliminaries and without taking the necessary precautions, compulsion may not only remain ineffective but stand in danger of defeating its purpose. Compulsion implies legal enforcement of penalty on the defaulting parents. Apart from the involved and dilatory procedural routine to be gone through and the ill feeling, bitterness and the fraudulent practices it is likely to breed, it is not so easy to enforce the penalty in the face of abject poverty and ignorance of the defaulting parent; and even if it could be enforced, there is little guarantee of the child's regular attendance thereafter.

It is therefore imperative that critical surveys are carried out in selected areas in order to have a proper insight into the variety of intermingled, complicated aspects—both administrative and educational—and experiments based on the findings are tried out in specially selected areas under proper supervision and guidance of sincere officers so as to arrive at the most economical and effective approach and remedial measures for the likely pitfalls and handicaps. Care has to be taken to ensure that not only all the children of the school-going age, excepting of course those that have to be exempted, are enrolled but that they regularly attend the school and successfully complete the course within the specified period. Tactical approach, persuasive follow-up work, sympathetic and systematic supervision and guidance, combined with encouragement and goading and making the school a community centre would all be necessary. This will depend on the interest and sincerity of the teacher and the local inspecting officer and the extent to which they are able to arouse enthusiasm and interest among the local people and to secure their active whole-hearted co-operation. Merely opening a school, appointing a teacher, carrying out the compulsory education census and issuing notices for enrolment may at best secure some enrolment or facilitate presenting annually a statistical return but that would not guarantee the achievement of our cherished goal.

The school timing and even some details of the syllabus may have to be slightly elastic so that they could be adjusted to suit the local conditions. What is significant is that the illiterate parents are able to see in some concrete form the improvement in the child and particularly its healthy impact on the family in some practical form. The compulsory education of the child in rural areas has of necessity to be less bookish and more directly related

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to their practical life and surroundings. It is immaterial by what name it is designated. It must be rid of educational fads, if any, and oppression of the rigid, dry syllabus. This is not quite so easy in practice, as said. The conditions materially differ in different areas.

Special Guidance to Teachers

The whole thing is to be carried out by the type of teachers we can normally expect to secure. Besides there would be always local problems. The teacher therefore would need more concrete guidance in this regard rather than the drilling that he is likely to get in the hackneyed bookish methodology, so inadvertently stressed in the training colleges for primary teachers. What the teacher needs more is clear insight into his live problems and such preparation as would enthuse him in his work, give him strength and courage to face the difficulties and enable him to view his problems and environment in the proper perspective and to evolve his own effective solutions of his problems. The training colleges may have therefore to re-orient their work. They may in this regard adopt with advantage a few villages in the neighbourhood in turn every year so as to face the conditions obtaining in the villages in their day to day work so that the training can be more practical and useful.

Literature for the guidance of the teachers shall have to be prepared periodically and distributed free among the teachers. The teachers in their turn shall have to be encouraged to report their genuine educational and administrative difficulties and problems to a central clearing house in each State so that thought can be given to them and in due course solutions suggested. Instructive small pamphlets and folders on topics of their interest seem also very necessary. The training that they could receive at the training colleges can but only initiate them to the art and science of education; it needs to be properly supplemented and followed up in right time when the teacher faces the life-situation.

Refresher courses at short intervals would be ideal but they may not be feasible for so many in quick succession due to practical difficulties. Diffusing fully illustrated literature on the other hand would be not only economical but effective.

In view of the urgency of recruiting thousands of teachers both for the new and the existing schools, it is doubtful whether facilities commensurate with the demands could be provided for training them all either before posting or within a year or so after employment. It would at the same time be detrimental to a certain extent to the cause of compulsory primary education if the education of the young be entrusted to the care of the untrained novices. It may therefore be worth considering whether they cannot be given an 'initiation' course of two or three weeks' duration and then their regular training completed in say, three successive vacations instead of doing it at a stretch in one year. The study of academic subjects, if any, such as languages, arithmetic, general science, etc. may be left to the teachers to complete themselves and only general guidance may be given in the training colleges. This may incidentally solve the problem of appointment of substitutes and the salary of teachers during their period of training. Allowances to training college staff and to pupil teachers will not be so heavy.

Merely placing the law of Compulsory Primary education on the statute book and making it applicable to a given age-group in a given area is comparatively far easier than its effective and economical implementation in the right spirit. It would be always better if compulsion could be introduced in an area when, as a result of previous preparation or propaganda, there comes out a local demand for it. In view of the limited resources in regard to qualified teachers, material and money, it is imperative that schemes of universal compulsory primary education are worked out in a thoroughly rational and realistic manner, within the framework of the local conditions and facilities and in the light of the experience gained.

Educational Survey of India

The value of dependable up-to-date statistics and periodical surveys or stock taking can hardly be over-emphasised in this regard. Compulsion presupposes the existence of the educational facility within easy reach of the child. Educational statistics in the past gave little information about habitations having schools in them or in the neighbourhood and the population of such habitation. The educational survey conducted by the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the State Governments has after making all reasonable enquiries with the various officers concerned with villages and with the teachers and with the help of such other data as could be collected, grouped the rural habitations in 'School Areas' of the existing and the proposed schools and has made available various registers, maps and tables for the use of the local educational administrators. The survey has indentified and enumerated every distinct and every elementary, middle and high school, mapped out the location of schools, delimited the area served by each existing school, has decided on the location of new schools by suitable classification and grouping of habitations and has prepared the tahsil and districtwise statistical tables showing the results of the survey.

The Survey shows that on 31st March 1957, out of the 8,40,033 rural habitations (villages and their hamlets) in India (except West Bengal that did not participate in the Survey) only 2,29,023 had in them one or more primary schools. Though the remaining 6,11,010 had none in them, after careful study of their location, population, mutual distances and topography it was found that 3,70,962 of them could be treated as served by the existing schools within one mile in the adjoining urban or rural area and that if schools were started in the selected 1,03,288 of the remaining inhabitations they would serve another 1,09,404 habitations, leaving out only 27,356 tiny, isolated habitations. At this stage, notwithstanding the directive principle of the Constitution regarding the States' educational policy, a population of

about 19,65,000, according to the 1951 Census, which might rise to about 22,00,000 in the course of the present decade, will have to remain without any educational facility at the primary school stage, within a distance of about one mile.

This is just to indicate how the Educational Survey would help in economic planning of schools, without detriment to efficiency. *Ad hoc* estimates of the number of schools or teachers required would be rather misleading. The revenue village in the first place cannot be the unit for the population centre. The hamlets—and there is not a small number of these—need also be taken into account. In the area surveyed, 5,25,363 villages had 3,14,670 hamlets making the number of rural habitations 8,40,033. Thus on an average for every 100 villages there exist about 160 habitations. As people stay in them they have got to be taken into consideration and not merely the villages. At the same time it would be too ambitious and unpractical to think of opening a school in each of the 6,11,010 habitations that had no school in them in March 1957. Even a single teacher school in each one of these would mean a non-recurring expenditure of about Rs. 92 crores and an annual recurring expenditure of at least about Rs. 61 crores. Grouping the habitations suitably and opening schools in the selected 1,03,288 habitations at a cost of about Rs. 15 crores non-recurring and at an annual recurring cost of Rs. 10 crore would do the work as well, as far as the question of location of school is concerned.

Similarly *ad hoc* estimates of the manpower requirement, if calculated for the total estimated population would give the figure quite off the mark. The population of the tiny isolated habitations that cannot possibly expect a school in near future would, if not taken into account and it could not be, reduce the figure for manpower requirement by about 7,000 teachers, which at the rates at which the estimates are generally calculated would mean about Rs. 105 lakh non-recurring and Rs. 70 lakh recurring annually. This is to illustrate again how the survey findings if implemented in the right spirit would

enable us to arriving at fairly realistic estimates, instead of placing them too high.

Additional Manpower Requirement

The additional requirement in regard to manpower, buildings, etc. on account of the likely increase during the decennium on the basis of the estimated total increase in population, should not be unduly over-estimated. In the first place what exactly is the incidence of the total increase in population on the age-group 6-11 or 11-14 is not precisely known, as there is no unanimity of opinion regarding the decrease in the death-rate, particularly of infant and child mortality, and consequent rise in the average life-span and the effect, if any, of the family planning schemes and propaganda in arresting the increasing birth-rate in rural and urban areas. Accurate figures for population of each habitation for the required age-groups would be available only after the 1961 Census figures become available; till then the estimates projected from the 1951 Census have to be used. Ordinarily as a result of the various welfare activities and the consequent increase in the average span of life, the percentage of the age-group 6-11 ought to fall from 12½ to a lower level, coming nearer to that obtaining in the advanced countries of the world.

Whatever the increase in the population of the school-going age, *ad hoc* calculation of the additional teachers required on the basis of the total increase of population, whatever it be, is in every probability likely to lead to over-estimating regarding the requirements of manpower, buildings etc. Most of the existing and proposed school areas have a total population between 300-500 each. Of the existing 2,29,023 habitations with schools in them 1,04,689 were with population below 500. They housed more than 26% of the then-rural population. The Survey tables do not give ready-made distribution of school areas according to their population slabs, but this can be found out readily at the district level from the School Area Registers. What matters here is that a large majority of rural school areas are small. Calculating

the requirement slab-wise would show that in a good many areas the increase in the school-going population would not warrant appointing an additional teacher though the aggregate of all the small increases in each school area would suggest a substantial increase in manpower and class-rooms on this account.

It works like this. In a school area with a 1951 population of about 300 even an increase in population by about 12% would raise the strength of the age-group 6-11 from about 37 or 38 to 41 or 42, warranting the appointment of no additional teacher. A single teacher or two-teacher school would ordinarily continue to remain the same. Even in bigger areas with total population above 500 the increase would get distributed over the different classes and may not always be a case for an additional teacher. Even in school areas with 1951 population as 1,000, the population of school-going age 6-11 will rise by about 15 from 125 to 140. The pupil-teacher ratio is to be 40 on an average, but in some schools it is bound to be above 40, say up to 50 or so. What the upper limit of children per teacher should be before another teacher is appointed needs to be determined by each State. On the other hand wherever single-teacher schools are to be started, and most of the new schools will be only single-teacher schools in small habitations, the teacher will have to be appointed in the very first year of the school whatever the enrolment and it cannot be spread over five or four years.

No tables giving the distribution of the existing school areas according to the number of teachers or population slabs are readily available though these can be easily constructed in no time at the district level from the data already collected in the Educational Survey made by the Union Education Ministry and hence it is neither intended nor possible to show with any degree of accuracy what precisely would be the effect of these factors on the total requirements. However, by way of a hypothetical calculation if it is presumed that the population of all such areas is roughly equal to

the population of all the habitations in the slab 500 and below, the reduction in the manpower requirement over the *ad hoc* calculation on the total population may be reduced by about 45,000 teachers, thus affecting a reduction of about Rs. 4.5 crores in the annual recurring and Rs. 6.7 crores in the non-recurring expenditure. This hypothetical calculation would at least bring home the need of teaching factor into consideration so that our estimates for the Third Five-Year Plan are not placed too high. It is also worth noting that in the initial stages to expect cent per cent enrolment would be too much. It may be presumed at about 90% of school-going population. Another point worth considering is the age of admission and the duration of the first phase of the compulsory stage. A glance at the annual statistics shows that the maximum enrolment, whether for boys or for girls is the age-group 7-8. It is therefore worth considering whether compulsion cannot be started from this age and the first phase of the stage be made of four years as in the Bombay State instead of five years. There appears nothing so special about five years' duration, at any rate at this initial stage of providing compulsion for all. What matters most is that within the limited resources that may be available the former Infants' class has been amalgamated with the first standard. A child admitted at a higher age can complete much more in a shorter period. The idea may appear retrograde on superficial consideration but is neither educationally unsound nor a new one. Moreover in some cases the expenditure would be reduced by about one-fifth, in bigger areas. In smaller areas though there will not be any reduction in expenditure, the load on the teacher and on accommodation would be reduced and the stagnation and wastage in standard I may be substantially reduced. This is of fundamental importance in any scheme of compulsory primary education.

Another problem where substantial economy could be effected and where there are chances of overestimating is that of provision of a school building for the new schools. No one can question the desirability of a suitable school building but this

could and should be such as would synchronise with the conditions obtaining in the school area. Most of the new schools will be in habitations with population of about 300 or even much less. A school room as would be envisaged in bigger habitations or in towns is at the present stage and in the present circumstances out of consideration in these tiny habitations. Perhaps construction of a small shed or hut can very well be the first project for the teacher with the assistance of the local people.

The points already indicated in regard to the calculation of the manpower requirements equally hold good regarding the provision of accommodation.

Women Teachers

Another problem is regarding the requirements of women teachers. There can be no doubt that our primary schools, should wherever possible be run by lady teachers, provided they are available and ready to serve in these small, backward far-flung areas. Even to have men teachers is not quite so easy. The best way would be to try to secure people from local areas and train them by providing incentives and making contracts.

Another point regarding women teachers is that we are likely to over-estimate the manpower requirements. In small school areas where one or two teachers are already appointed, the question of appointing women teachers in their place or for the additional girls that may join would not arise in good many cases due to the imperative necessity of maintaining the pupil-teacher ratio. A glance over this data collected incidentally in the Educational Survey creates doubt regarding the general impression or belief that the existence of women teachers would increase the enrolment of girls. It does not appear to substantiate itself. It would be advisable to analyse a few sample cases from these valuable data. In a village, and particularly in smaller villages where the teacher would be as good as a kin, it is unthinkable that the parents would not send their girls of 6-11 to school on this score. There are habita-

tions where the enrolment of girls at certain stages is higher than that of boys with only men-teachers there. The cause of poor enrolment and subsequent stagnation and dropping out need to be objectively investigated in view of the importance of the problem in the scheme of compulsory primary education for boys or for girls.

One thing is certain that the *ad hoc* calculation of the requirement regarding women teachers on the basis of the total number of girls to be brought to school are sure to lead us to a very deceptive figure. The existing teachers can take in a large number of children without any additional teachers. Mostly it is the girls that will have to be brought to school and the teacher whether a man or woman would be already there. It cannot be forgotten that not a small number of our existing schools and particularly those that have to be opened will remain single-teacher schools because of the size and location of our rural habitations.

It is not possible even to mention cursorily the variety of problems that need to

be objectively considered while planning towards the goal of universal compulsory primary education. Incentives for the teachers and the pupil would be necessary. Before implementing any schemes regarding some new ideas that may occur, such as the mid-day meals or school mothers, it would be advisable to try them out in sample areas on very small scale lest we realise too late that they are wasteful and not conducive to the results expected. Moreover having once plunged headlong it may not be quite so easy to withdraw the so-called facilities.

What is again necessary is that the educational statistics should be compiled in a form that would be useful in evaluating the progress at each level, stage and for given groups of areas. The data collected by the Educational Survey also needs to be brought up to date year after year at the district level. The timelag that is at present noticeable in the statistical data needs to be substantially reduced so that remedial measures in regard to the working of the compulsion schemes can be taken immediately.

● In these days when droves of students are going abroad on exchange scholarships, one superintendent reported he received the following letter : "I am interested in one of these here full bright scholarships and I wonder if you can tell me if I can't get a full bright one, can I get a half bright one?"

—From North Carolina Education

Hindi as the Official Language of India

ARTICLE 343 OF THE CONSTITUTION OF INDIA made Hindi in the Devanagari script as the official language of the Union of India, Article 344 provided for the appointment of a Commission, one in 1955 and the other 1960 for the purpose of recommending the progressive use of Hindi. Let us quote clauses 2 and 3 of Article 344 :

“(2) It shall be the duty of the Commission to make recommendations to the President as to :

- (a) The progressive use of the Hindi language for the official purposes of the Union;
 - (b) Restrictions on the use of the English language for all or any of the official purposes of the Union;
 - (c) The language to be used for all or any of the purposes mentioned in Article 348;
 - (d) The form of numerals to be used for any one or more specified purposes of the Union;
 - (e) Any other matter referred to the Commission by the President as regards the official language of the Union and the language for communication between the Union and a State or between one State and another and their use.
- (3) In making their recommendations under clause (2), the Commission shall have due regard to the industrial, cultural and scientific advancement of India, and the just claims and interests of persons belonging to the non-Hindi speaking areas in regard to the public services.”

A Commission was accordingly appointed which made, *inter alia*, the following recommendations :—

“We do not recommend that any restrictions should be imposed for the present

on the use of the English language for any of the purposes of the Union.....

It has not been possible for us to furnish a regular time-table by dates and stages as to how Hindi should be introduced into the business of the Union so as to accomplish the general changeover within the period fixed by the Constitution.”

The drawing up of a plan of action has been left to the Government of India. The Commission has, however, indicated the pre-requisites and the sequence of the phasing of a plan of action. These pre-requisites and the sequence of phasing are such that no start can be made in the matter of introducing Hindi for any purposes in the working of the Union before 1965.

We need not take recourse to statistics for the purposes of this small article to illustrate in a broad way that the progress that has been made is not satisfactory. There are two facets of the problem, namely, the relative places of English and other Indian languages in relation to Hindi.

Over-emphasis on English

Hindi and other Indian languages are the languages spoken by 99 per cent of the population. Linguistically it is unnatural that a foreign language be cultivated and put against Hindi and other Indian languages. It is unnatural that English be used as the language of Parliament, of law and justice, as the language of administration and education. If this basic fact is realised, only then can any progress be made in the use of Indian languages.

The educational system of the country has, for its major aim, the teaching of English. More time and attention is spent on English in our Secondary and higher education than on any Indian language. The amount of efficiency aimed at is higher in English than in Indian languages. The English vocabulary of an Indian graduate is in the neighbourhood of

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15,000 words and it concerns not only literature but general knowledge in all departments of teaching. The same cannot be claimed for Hindi or any Indian language. What the Indian student is trained to say in English, he is not trained to say in any Indian language.

It must be clearly understood that Hindi is the first among equals and that Hindi will not replace any Indian language. Happily the sphere of every Indian language is a clearly marked territory. With the exception of the Punjab, every State is unilingual. The language of every State is decided by itself. Thus, the life of every State is governed in all aspects by its own language. There is no place for linguistic rivalries in the States. Hindi has its own States. It will be used there.

Now we come to the Centre. It is generally assumed that Hindi has been adopted as the language of the Union on account of the large number of votes commended by Hindi speakers. There is some truth in it. But that is not the whole truth. If the Hindi speakers abstained and the choice were left to the non-Hindi speakers, would the decision be different? Normally it would not be, for it cannot be.

Hindi and the Regional Languages

Geo-linguistically, Hindi is the heart language of India. Other languages lie at its periphery. On the whole, India is a vast plain and hence on all points of the periphery there is a broad region where Hindi meets its neighbours. For example, Hindi meets Panjabi, Gujerati, Marathi, Telugu, Oriya, Bengali and Assamese over a long boundary line, whose width varies between 20 and 100 miles. Here live millions of men, women and children who are bilingual. Great cities, like Amritsar, Ahmedabad, Bombay, Hyderabad and Calcutta, have millions of Hindi users. Wandering *sadhus* and film stars, musicians and pedagogues are able to carry their message over a wider area through Hindi than through any other tongue. A Panjabi, an Assamese, a Gujerati and a Bengali, a Marathi and an Oriya find Hindi a natural medium among themselves.

India's self-expression would be best helped by the development of regional languages. Similarly India's unity can best be achieved by an Indian language. The Constitution has accepted Hindi and that happens to be also a natural choice. What is natural has only to be taken up by the Government. While considering the Government, one comes to the educational system of the country. If linguistic unity is a desideratum, and if Indians are to be integrated more closely than ever before, a common Indian language has to be assiduously cultivated at some stage of the educational system.

Hindi happens to be a sister of other Indian languages. With other north Indian languages it shares a common parentage through sister Apabhraṃshas and Prakrits back to Sanskrit. Sanskrit also happens to have supplied nourishment through linguistic expressions, a common vocabulary, common sciences, common epic literature, common religion to both the northern and southern languages of the country. Thought and expression among Indian languages have an affinity and sameness which none of our languages share with foreign languages.

Meeting the Constitutional Provision

Having made the above observations let us now consider a programme that would make it possible to fulfil the Constitutional requirement to establish Hindi as the language of the Indian Union after 1965.

The educational system of the country should provide teaching of Hindi all over the country. The most convenient would be the secondary stage. With the exception of Tamil and Urdu, Hindi shares its literary, philosophical and technical vocabulary with all other languages of India. Minor differences do exist and should be allowed to exist. But wherever they come in the way of further advancement, terms can be standardized. Hindi has to be learnt as a language of comprehension by average students. Those who go up for Central Services will have to be given an extra course of training to acquire sufficient

knowledge and practice in using it for professional purposes. It would not be out of place to mention here, that the recruitment of non-Hindi speaking personnel to services should not be effected for the first few years. If necessary, even quotas may be fixed for the recruitment of non-Hindi speakers, or conversely, for the Hindi-speakers.

Universities should start with Hindi as the medium of instruction from the first year onward. In four years' time, graduates will be available who would have had good training in the use of Hindi.

In the Central Secretariat, working in Hindi should be started forthwith. If 25 per cent members of an office were to be trained every year in shifting to Hindi, it will be possible in four years' time to have a complete change over. Here it must be borne in mind that there would already be 30 to 40 per cent officers of the Government of India whose mother tongue is Hindi and who therefore will be the first

to shift over to the new medium after a short specialized course of three to six months and who would form an effective corps of helpers for the others. An extensive programme of teaching Hindi is essential for the purpose. The same would apply to the supreme court. Only one would have to provide for certain judges and some officers of the Government who are too busy or too old to shift over. Help of translators may be given to them for as long as necessary.

It is necessary to put restrictions on the use of English year after year. It is also essential to provide the alternate use of Hindi possible year after year.

A democracy cannot function in an alien language. That is a negation of democracy. If a democracy means a Government of the people, for the people and by the people, it should be run through a language that is shared by the majority of the people.

● The one invincible thing is a good book : neither malice nor stupidity can crush it.

—George Moore

Some Popular Fallacies in Educational Theory and Practice

FEW DEPARTMENTS OF HUMAN KNOWLEDGE and experience are so fallacy ridden as the field of educational theory and practice. It is only in the past century that education has emerged as a field of study in its own right, yet in this short space of time, it has become the happy-hunting ground of a mixed company of philosophers, psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, doctors, psychiatrists, etc., each with their cut and dried blue-prints, and infallible nostrums for the education of youth, and, as a result the field of educational theory and practice is no more a quite pedagogic pasture, it has become a battleground for a host of conflicting ideas and practices. Some of these are comparatively harmless. Others are positively dangerous to the child who is there chief victim!

It will not be possible in a short article to deal with all the fallacies that have from time to time become current in the field of educational theory and practice. Many have had a brief meteoric success, but lacking substance have soon burnt themselves out. Others have, after a fair trial, been weighed in the balance of practical day-to-day experience and found wanting. There is no need to resurrect these passing fancies and mushroom growths. But there are other fallacies, which, through the accumulated weight of knowledge and experience, have exposed their hollowness, linger on, and, continue to do considerable damage in the field of educational theory and practice. Of these the author shall endeavour to single out a few of the most common and the most dangerous.

Education Never Ends

One of the most common and popular educational fallacies is the notion that the process of education is confined to a certain

fixed period of life, beginning about the age five and six and coming to an abrupt end when the boy or young man, depending on circumstances of birth and finance, is photographed proudly flourishing his Matric, B.A., or Ph.D. Degree. During this period of 10-20 years, the eager student goes all out to acquire the necessary knowledge to pass his examination but when it is over and the diploma framed, he feels that his education is "complete," so that from now on he can take life easy and live in the meagre interest of the capital of knowledge he so painstakingly acquired for his examinations! The widespread nature of this fallacy is primarily responsible for the vast numbers of matriculates and graduates, including perhaps the majority of teachers one meets in India especially, who are not only relatively uneducated, but uneducable! Education cannot be confined to any particular period of life, it is lifelong, uphill dynamic process of continuous development literally stretching from the cradle to the grave, in which to stand still is to stagnate and to slip downwards. The still more limited idea that the education of the average child can be "completed" between the ages of 6-14 is responsible for much of the educational wastage in India, and in other countries: not only does it neglect the important formative years from 3 to 6, but it cuts off the process of development at an age when the child is just ready to derive some real and lasting benefit from his education. It was the realisation of the vital fact that made Mahatma Gandhi expend his conception of Basic Education from 5-14 to "Nai Talim", which would begin from birth and extend throughout the life of every individual.

This conception of education for life throughout life is being more and more clearly realised and acted upon in progressive countries. Thus in England the 1944 Education Act defines education as a continuous process of development in

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three successive stages Infant and Primary education (3-11), Secondary Education (11-18), and Further Education from 18 to the grave; and Local Education Authorities have been charged with making suitable Educational provision for all children, young people and adults at each of these stages. And in the U.S.A. a similar view prevails, so that it has aptly described as a 'Nation at School.'

A second fallacy which has harmed the cause of education is the idea that education is confined to a fixed place, the School, College or University. It is this misconception that has been largely responsible for the divorce between the school and the home on the one hand, and the school and society on the other. This two-fold dichotomy has been almost fatal to the unity and reality of the total educational process; it has led schools and other educational institutions to retreat into ivory towers and to surround themselves with both physical and cultural walls which have cut them off from the homes and from the world outside their walls for which they are supposed to be preparing their students. The sooner it is realised that it is the whole milieu which educates, that real education is going on at all times in all places, in the home, in the streets and in the Cinema; at work and at play, and hence that it is the responsibility not only of teachers but of all adults who come into contact with children, the better it will be from the educational standpoint. There must be a much greater and deeper understanding and much closer links between the school, the home and the community, if education is to be really effective, instead of working at cross purposes or neutralising the good done by one another; there should be real cooperation and a growing harmony of ideas and ideals between them so that the education of the child is a comprehensive, harmonious and continuous process from birth to death. School and life are not opposites but complements, unless there is a dynamic two-way traffic of ideas and ideals between them, education will lose much of its reality and effectiveness schools and other educational

institutions must not only impart knowledge, but help children and young people to learn more effectively from life, otherwise they will never provide a real and complete education for life.

Divorce Between Work and Play

A third dangerous fallacy is the divorce between work and play, education for work and education for leisure. Even in schools where both those aspects are catered for, they are generally treated as distinct, independent, parallel entities, and the artificial barriers between them are rarely bridged. Work is looked upon as a necessary evil, as a compensation and reward for the drudgery of the former. Children carry this attitude into life and because there is a violent contrast between their labour and their leisure, they rarely achieve real happiness or contentment in either. This is a great pity. Work is as essential to the harmonious development of man's personality and real happiness as play; unless a man finds as much satisfaction in his work as in his leisure, he will never be able to develop a rounded, wholesome personality or lead a full and happy life. It is perhaps too much to hope in our age of automation and 'admass' for G. B. Shaw's Ideal Commonwealth where "work is play, and play is life three in one, and one in three", but unless we teach children in school to find real satisfaction in work and in play, in labour and in leisure we sentencing them to becoming warped personalities, leading unhappy and unsatisfied lives. For the man who regards work as an unmitigated drudgery is almost certain to waste his precious leisure hours in violent amusements and stimulants which will be in the nature of a drug or an escape, rather than real recreation.

The application of the scientific spirit and the scientific method to education has done much good in pricking some of the illusions of the past, and in furnishing and increasing scientific facts and evidence of enormous value to educational administrators and practising teachers. But it has not been an unmixed good. It has, for

instance, developed into a tendency towards excessive analysis and classification that is undermining the essential unity and wholeness of the educational progress. This analytic craze has invaded every department of educational theory and practice. In the field of educational administration, for instance, education has been divided into different stages. Pre-Nursery, Nursery, Primary, Junior High, Senior High, and Adult, which are often treated by their respective "experts" as if they were watertight compartments having little or no relation with the others. Each expert intensively cultivates his own little plot, insisting that it is the most important stage in the child's education; and the total process and vital inter-relationship between stages is often lost sight of. Such "experts" would do well to take to heart Sir Cyril Burts words of mature wisdom that "in the development of the intellectual as of the emotional life, there are no sudden breaks on abrupt transitions", to realise that every stage of education depends on the one immediately before and is linked with the one following after.

Dividing the Personality

Not content with dividing the total and continuous process of education into more or less isolated and self-contained stages, many educational psychologists are guilty of the equally grave error of dividing the complete personality of the child into three parts, body, mind and spirit, and endeavouring to educate each part in isolation from the others. Thus we have attempts to educate the character and to strengthen the will, apart from the education of the mind and body, and other efforts at physical training or mental discipline and aesthetic training in isolation from one another. In one period the child is treated as almost pure body, at another as pure mind, at a third as pure emotion, so that the education of his personality as a whole, the co-education of body, mind and spirit in every phase and aspect of this education is entirely lost sight of with tragic consequences to the total education of the child.

What is even worse is the tendency of modern experimental psychology to resurrect the discredited "Faculty" psychology in a new guise. The use of statistical techniques and objective tests has been of great benefit to the cause of education, but there is a danger of losing sight of the child as a whole human being due to the modern tendency to analyse him into "Multiple factors" that are more amenable to exact measurement and calculation. "Faculties have a way of losing every battle, but winning the war."

Curriculum Fallacies

In the field of curriculum study, much criticism has recently been levelled at the rigid compartmentalisation of the curriculum into watertight subjects. "The seamless robe of learning", to quote Prof. Jacks, "has been rent into a thing of shreds and patches", and the modern school curriculum is a crazy patchwork of largely isolated subjects without order, harmony or meaning. The reaction against rigid subject divisions of knowledge has recently led to a wholesome emphasis on larger groupings of subjects, on projects and "centres of interest". These have their place and importance in making children "learn by doing" as well as from books, and in emphasising the essential unity of knowledge, but we must be careful not to run to the extreme of dispensing entirely with the traditional subjects, a systematic study of which, with due attention to their co-relationships, is as necessary to the education and normal personality development of the child as projects or activities.

Another dangerous fallacy in regard to the curriculum is the attempt to make the child by the teacher, nor should children, of making the curriculum fit the child. There should neither be a Procrustean imposition of a rigid curriculum on every child by the teacher, nor should children, as they are in some ultra-progressive schools, be given complete freedom to choose their own curriculum. It is the teacher and Guidance Counsellor, who,

after a careful study of the child's needs, interests and abilities, and, in consultation with the parents and the children themselves, should choose the best curriculum for each particular child. A sound system is to have a core curriculum consisting of the fundamentals which every child must take, and a wide variety of electives from which children can choose those subjects and activities best suited to their age, aptitudes, abilities and interests.

And, finally, to the only too common fallacy handed down to us from Greek times that still persists with tragic intensity and disintegrating force in the field of education. This is the dangerous delusion that there are two types of education, what is termed Liberal or Cultural education, meant for the social and intellectual elite

and a vocational or technical education meant for the masses, the former aiming to educate a man to live a full life, the latter to train him to earn his living. Unless the fallacy is pricked once and for all, there can be no true advance in the field of education. Prof. Whitehead states categorically "there can be no liberal education which is not at the same time technical, and there can be no technical education which is not at the same time liberal." An education to be complete must prepare man both to earn a good living and to live a good life; the cultured society parasite and the uncultured labourer who slaves only to satisfy his material wants are both out of place in a modern democracy. And unless our modern system of education aims at turning out men and women who are both cultured and efficient, it will fail to meet the demands of the modern world.

DO YOU KNOW ?

- Free and Compulsory Primary education is proposed to be provided to children all over Asia by 1980 under a 20-year, 64-billion-dollar plan drawn up by a Unesco sponsored Karachi conference of 17 member-States on Primary education.

- A Central Hindi Directorate has been set up in the Union Ministry of Education to promote and propagate Hindi.

- The Delhi Municipal Corporation has decided to make education up to the middle standard free in its schools from April 1, 1960.

- Hindi and Sanskrit are being taught in about half a dozen Universities in the United States.

Role of Attendance Officers in Compulsory Education

ARTICLE 45 OF THE CONSTITUTION OF INDIA directs the State to endeavour to provide for free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of fourteen years by 1960. On account mainly of paucity of funds, non-availability of sufficient number of trained teaching and administrative personnel, and shortage of schools and accommodation, the fulfilment of this constitutional obligation is expected to take ten to fifteen years more beyond the scheduled time-limit. Realising at the same time the urgency and importance of this programme, it is now contemplated to have universal, free and compulsory primary education for all children of the age-group 6 to 11 years by the end of the year 1965-66. Planned efforts for the attainment of this noble national objective are being made all over the country.

For the success of any scheme of providing free and compulsory education it is essential to adopt a Compulsory School Attendance Act. Generally such an Act contains, *inter alia*, provision for the appointment of Attendance Officers whose duty it is to see that the regulations under the Act are observed.

Importance of Attendance Officers

The Attendance Officer has to see that all children of the compulsory school age, not legally exempt, attend school regularly. The educational and economic losses resulting from irregular attendance are considerable. The injurious consequences of repeated absence are particularly marked among the average and the less gifted pupils. They are often incapable of making up any lost time. Irregular attendance also presents an economic aspect which cannot be disregarded. It is not hard to realize the resulting enormous waste when we consider that school expenses remain the same whether or not all pupils are present; the teacher receives the same salary while the cost of upkeep and administration also remains at the same level. The Attendance Officer

through Compulsory School Attendance Act helps to diminish unjustified absenteeism and increases the general benefits to be derived from the school system. He has the responsibility of safeguarding the right of every child to receive at least an elementary instruction. He consequently plays an important role in the scholastic system.

From what has been stated above it would be wrong to think that the Attendance Officer is simply a police agent, charged with forcing children who are not at school to attend it. His duty is more in the domain of social work and education. He must understand the causes of non-attendance and use his authority to remove them. It is by persuasion, understanding and help that he should try to achieve his aim; he should have recourse to law only as a member of the school system rather than as a representative of law in the teaching field.

The Attendance Officer also supervises the protection of childhood in assuring that every child receives a minimum amount of knowledge. If he succeeds in having every child of compulsory school attendance age enrolled at school, he will have saved youth from ignorance and will have provided everyone with the rudiments of elementary education. The Attendance Officer, therefore, fulfills a function which is eminently useful to society.

In his circle or zone the Attendance Officer is the best known of all the local education authorities on account of his census visits and other ways of welfare work. He is the only officer known to many parents and they are apt to judge the attitude of the local education authority by his behaviour towards them. Parents often consult him about the educational problems of their children and if he is good at his job, he develops a particular attitude towards dealing with those questions. For this reason it is necessary that he should have a sound background of general educational policy. Annual refresher courses should also be arranged for Attendance Officers where they can hear the views of

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experts about the latest developments in different branches of education. The Attendance Officer thus also works as guide and counsellor to parents. Thus the importance of the functions of an Attendance Officer and the qualities he should possess can hardly be over-emphasised.

Qualities of Attendance Officers

In discharging the duties of his office the Attendance Officer should always show good judgment, tact, understanding and a spirit of helpfulness. He must co-operate with the teaching personnel and merit its confidence. His enquiries should be conducted with discernment and discretion so that no opposition is aroused. In his meetings with the parents, he should be able to explain to them clearly the requirements of the law of school attendance, the necessity of regular attendance at school, and when necessary, the usefulness of education. Above all, he must seek to win the cooperation of parents, his best allies. He should be able to solve all the difficult cases which may present themselves: truants who refuse to go to school, negligent parents, or those who insist upon keeping their children at work. While being sympathetic and helpful, he must not, however, be lacking in firmness nor let himself be deluded by false excuses or vain promises. Being just and impartial towards every one, he will know when to take action, after all other means have been exhausted. The attendance officer must also have love of children and a wide human sympathy. He should also have undergone a course in social service.

Field Work of Attendance Officers

In his day-to-day work charitable organisations and social service agencies can be of valuable help to an Attendance Officer. These institutions can be moved to render help by way of publicity, money and material to bring poor children of school age to schools. The Attendance Officer can render effective help to poor families in the shape of providing clothes and school shoes for their children or buying books and other school supplies for them. Voluntary or-

ganisations including Children Aid Societies also play an important role in child placement. Social Welfare Courts, Probation Officers, Youth Protection institutions which take care of, guide and train children, are other agencies dealing with the protection and care of neglected children. The Attendance Officer will be able to perform his duties efficiently only by working in close cooperation with all these organisations and officers, wherever they exist.

The Attendance Officer can also find valuable assistance from religious authorities in a country like India where priests and temple authorities yield a very great influence on the social life of the people. The Attendance Officer can utilise their assistance by requesting them to intercede with all their prestige and authority and bring home to the people the desirability and importance of compulsory education. When the adults are convinced of the efficacy of education, the problem of enforcing school attendance will remain merely one of dealing with problem children and problem families. An interesting and widespread field therefore is open to a conscientious Attendance Officer who wants to improve the lot of children and help the man of tomorrow.

The Attendance Officer under the School Attendance Act receives periodically from the heads of schools a list of pupils on the rolls who have been absent for illegal reasons, for prolonged legal reasons, or for unknown reasons. The Attendance Officer should make an enquiry into cases of absence wherever he finds it necessary. It is not necessary that he should intervene in the cases of illegal absences of short duration unless these occur often. In cases of prolonged absence, legal or illegal, or for unknown reasons, the Attendance Officer should make an enquiry. Sickness is the most frequent excuse, but this is not always true, and it might be necessary to verify if it is so. If the excuse given by parents is not justifiable, the Attendance Officer should remind parents or guardians of the terms of the law and seek the prompt return of the child to school. In all investigations with the parents and the public, the Attendance

Officer should undertake to promote good public relations.

The Attendance officer must pay special attention to cases of transfer, that is, to pupils who change schools or locality, in order that a child does not take advantage of this change to absent himself unduly from school. In their periodical reports the heads of schools inform the attendance officer about the departure of a pupil for another school or locality. The Attendance Officer in such cases should immediately notify his colleague in the locality or area to which the child has shifted and check up whether the child has actually joined his new school.

In his interventions, the Attendance

Officer must always try to use persuasion rather than force in observing the law of school attendance. He must proceed with tact and sympathy and show the negligent parents that the interests of the child demand his attention to his studies. If persuasion is of no avail, if it is evident that the instruction of the child is deliberately neglected, the Attendance Officer should not hesitate to take the case to court. As has been mentioned above, the first duty of the Attendance Officer is to be an educator and a social worker, not a police agent, but he must nevertheless see that the law is respected. When all other means have failed, test cases may diminish further violations.

● Take an interest in the future. That's where you will spend the rest of your life.

—From *Idaho Vo-Ed News*

Curriculum—

A Natural Out-come of Every Age

IN VERY EARLY DAYS, education was informal and incidental. It was imparted mainly in the home, the father taking up the responsibility for the son and the mother, for the daughter. The subject matter of education for the boys was some useful craft taught in the traditional way and for girls it was home-keeping and house-hold duties.

The question of curriculum or courses of studies came up for consideration only when the old order of informal education was replaced by that of formal education in schools. Both in the East and the West, different types of schools with different sets of curricula grew up in response to the demands of the ages that followed one another.

Curriculum in Different Ages

In ancient Greece, Academy of Plato was established with the purpose of producing people with a stamp of its own. None can say definitely about the subjects taught in the Academy. From the inscription on the doorway, "Let no one ignorant of geometry enter here" it was clear enough that mathematics was one of the principal subjects in the curriculum. Besides, a good grounding in mathematics in the beginning was supposed to be very helpful for the understanding of philosophy in the end. The aim of education as specifically stated in the *Republic* was to produce philosopher rulers, of course at the age of fifty. The selected few of the upper-class people were to study mathematics and metaphysics and those of the lower class were to finish with music and athletics. So in short, Plato's image was a philosopher ruler and the curriculum prescribed was such as would fulfil his purpose.

The next phase is associated with the names of Cicero and Quintilian of ancient Rome. They wanted to produce orators who would be far better administrators in

public and private concerns than Plato's visionary philosopher rulers. Quintilian's *Institute of Orator* gives a detailed account of the heavy technical courses of studies in oratory and rhetoric prescribed for the schools of same name (oratory and rhetoric).

The image of the Medieval Age was the image of the scholar saint of the monastery of the Catholic Church. In keeping with the spirit of scholasticism of the age, the curriculum was heavily loaded with the doctrines of Christianity and dogmas of theology, as laid down by Church authority.

Later on, came Renaissance with a new outlook on men and things—a distinct departure from the other worldliness of the previous age. The image of man then visualised was a courtier humanist seeking inspiration in the secular literatures of ancient Greece and Rome. In short, the revival of classical learning was the main characteristic of the age. In course of time, the lofty spirit behind the move was lost and the curriculum in schools consisted of words and words only.

This state of things could not continue for long. There was a strong reaction against the artificiality of decadent humanism of the later period, comically designated as Ciceronism. Rousseau's naturalism as depicted in his *Emile* created a commotion in the society by presenting a new image of natural man. The curriculum underwent a gradual change in the wake of the political change that followed. The metric systems in coinage, weight and measures and such other things came as a corollary to that movement of naturalism.

Still later, we find the image of Adam Smith's economic man. The education that was scrupulously kept away from earning livelihood in the days of Socrates, was carefully adapted to commercial and other pursuits of material well-being. With the march of time, Karl Marx presented the image of the class-conscious worker and

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Thomas Jefferson, that of an enlightened free man through his plan for universal education. The curricula in the spheres of their influence were suitably constructed to facilitate the emergence of men after these images.

Indian Curriculum

In ancient India, another image of man could be found in the tapovans (forest homes), growing up in close contact with nature free from the turmoil of city life. Poet Tagore also wanted to present the same image of man, spiritually free in his school at Santiniketan. So his curriculum took due cognisance of the emotional aspects of life to be developed through art and literature so that a happy union of the East and the West could be realised to the mutual benefit of both. Gandhiji wanted a self-reliant man through his plan of Basic Education.

After Independence, our image of man is also that of a free man—free from all

narrowness of mind, free from economic hardship and free from coarseness of any kind. In other words, we want to see every man and woman free intellectually, free politically, free personally, free religiously and free completely from all dogmas and doctrines that hamper the growth and development of the spirit within. Accordingly, the curriculum envisaged is meant to achieve that end and aim of human freedom in the widest sense of the term, consistent, of course, with the development of the community as a whole.

At present, whenever we consider the curriculum for our secondary schools, we do recall the relevant recommendations of Mudaliar Commission's Report, 1953, as the basis of further investigations into the matter. The recommendations of the Report in general and particularly those in connection with curriculum came as a natural outcome of the spirit of the age in India. Hence their importance.

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education today

Orientation of Primary Education in Manipur

Manipur Administration recently organised three seminars—one in urban and two in rural areas—of seven days duration each on orientation of Elementary schools towards Basic pattern. One hundred and ninety-seven teachers participated in the seminar. In order to step up the orientation programme the Administration has sanctioned a sum of Rs. 5,400 as rewards to be given to the best oriented Primary schools.

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Primary Education in Mysore

Mysore Government decided to convert 400 Junior Primary schools into Basic type during 1959-60 at a recurring and non-recurring expenditure of Rs. 24,000 and Rs. 1,25,000 respectively. Under the scheme to relieve the educated unemployment and expansion of Primary education sponsored by the Government of India, sanction has been accorded to the opening of 880 Primary schools, appointment of 880 teachers and construction of 105 residential quarters for women teachers in rural areas. Craft subjects were introduced in 300 Primary schools during the year.

*

Primary Education in Bombay

Construction of various building works for Primary schools was carried out according to prescribed schemes during 1959 in the Bombay State. An amount of Rs. 29,68,995 was sanctioned for the construction of 1,128 classrooms, and other school facilities in the various district

School Boards' areas in the old Bombay State.

The new regions have been given their due shares in the construction of buildings for Primary schools and an amount of Rs. 1,99,135 has been sanctioned for the purpose in Saurashtra. For Vidarbha about Rs. 2 lakhs were sanctioned in 1958-59. A sum of Rs. 1.32 lakhs was also sanctioned for the construction of Craft-Sheds in old Bombay State.

*

Basic Education in Public Schools

The Basic Education Committee on Public Schools has presented its report to the Union Government.

The four-member Committee was appointed in September, 1958 to assess the extent to which Basic education had been introduced in the Member Schools of the Indian Public Schools Conference.

The Committee was also asked to suggest other features of Basic education which could be introduced in these schools in order to bring their Elementary classes into closer proximity with the Basic system of education.

The Committee visited six public schools located in different parts of the country and discussed with the Principals and staff various problems connected with the introduction of Basic techniques and elicited their opinion about the new system.

A questionnaire was issued to all the public schools to obtain their reactions to some aspects of the work including social attitudes; community living; activities and

work programmes; methods and objectives of assessment and finance.

*

Rural Primary Education in Rajasthan

Administrative control of Primary education in rural areas has been transferred from the State to Panchayat Samities in Rajasthan. As a result, about 11,000 Primary schools with 15,500 teachers are under Panchayat Samities. The Education Department exercises general supervision and academic control over these schools.

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Night School for Adults in Assam

Permanent Night Schools at Gauhati, Jorhat and Nowgong have been offering education facilities to many working adults in the State.

Recently another Night School has been started at Sualkuchi, a silk industry centre in the Gauhati sub-division where about 100 adults of age-group 14 to 35 have been enrolled. Out of the total enrolment, 93 adults are employees in the local Silk Industry.

Eleven Social Education Workers' Training Camps were also organised recently in the State in which 195 trainees participated.

On the occasion of All India Social Education Day, a Book Exhibition was arranged at Gauhati. The exhibition continued for two days and about 2,000 people visited the exhibition.

* * *

Free Education in Tripura

The Government of India have decided that education be made free to all students up to standard VIII (Age-group 14) in all recognized schools in the Union Territory of Tripura. The decision which is to take effect shortly will be of great help to the people of the Territory consisting mostly of educationally and economically backward tribals and displaced persons.

* * *

Women's Education in Orissa

A one-month Refresher Course Training class was conducted at Cuttack recently for trained and untrained undergraduate women teachers of the State. Fourteen training centres have also been started in 14 girls' High and M.E. schools of the State to provide short term training to 400 newly appointed School Mothers. The School Mothers were appointed under the Central Scheme of "Expansion of Girls' Education and Training of Women Teachers".

* * *

Secondary Education in Mysore

The Government of Mysore sanctioned the opening of six new High schools in the State during 1959-60 at a recurring and non-recurring cost of Rs. 38,128 and Rs. 20,000 respectively. A sum of Rs. 4,03,897 was also sanctioned for utilising on High schools converted into Multi-purpose High schools towards items of expenditure on equipments.

To enable the conversion of High schools into Higher Secondary schools the State Government have also decided to introduce Science course in six girls' High schools at a cost of Rs. 10,000.

*

Secondary Education in Bombay

Bombay Government appointed an Integration Committee for Secondary Education in January 1958 to consider the question of evolving a uniform but flexible system of Secondary education. The State Government have since received the report of the Committee and have taken decision on the recommendation relating to pay scales, fee rates and rates of grants-in-aid.

*

Suggested Curricular Changes in U.P.

The Government Constructive Training College, Lucknow, organised many discussions and seminars on curricular changes recently. It was expressed that in these days of emphasis on science and technology,

music should be made an integral part of the school curriculum.

In a Seminar on Social Studies held under the auspices of the Extension Service Department of the Constructive Training College, the participants were unanimous in their opinion that social studies could play a vital role provided the three constituent subjects were better integrated. They prepared curricula properly linking the three constituent subjects and paving the way for a more efficient teaching of the subject.

The College also organized a Seminar on the teaching of agriculture. The problems taken up referred to compost manure, syllabus in agriculture, cropping scheme and allied matters including building up of agricultural museums in schools. The regional Seminar made salutary recommendations for improvement in the teaching of agriculture in schools.

* * *

Sample Survey of Absenteeism in Schools in Delhi

A meeting of prominent social workers and officials of Delhi was held in August 1957 to consider the growing problem of juvenile delinquency involving an increasing number of school students. The meeting viewed with great concern the habit of school children going to cinemas during school hours, and decided to conduct a survey to assess the extent and intensity of the problem. The survey was conducted during the months of January and February, 1958. In view of the general complaint of truancy from the school and the bad examination results as also the increasing number of school-going boys coming up before the juvenile courts, it was also decided to assess the problem of absenteeism in the schools, and accordingly this survey was taken up simultaneously with a Survey of Cinema Visiting by Students During School Hours.

A circular was issued to all the recognised schools asking them to send a daily statement for a period of two weeks. A proforma was worked out and mailed to all the heads of Higher Secondary, High and

Senior Basic schools in Delhi State. They were required to give in the details of the students absent with leave and without leave on different dates.

In all, 336 schools were approached out of which 112 furnished the required information; but complete information was available from only 72 schools for the period January 20 to January 30, 1958.

The highest figures of absentees including both with and without leave in an individual school on a certain day during the survey period was 156 out of 1,120 students on roll, i.e., 13.92% of the total students.

An analysis of the figures showed that though the total number of absentees in all the schools on respective dates was not very high in proportion to the total number of students on roll in the schools, yet the number of those absent without leave was invariably higher than those who were absent with leave. On a certain date the number of absentees without leave was 1,719 as against 1,223 with leave showing the difference of 496 in a total of 38,521 boys on roll.

On enquiry from the heads of the schools it was learnt that two of the main causes of growing absenteeism in schools were the apathy of parents towards studies of their children and the teacher's lack of control of his class. Other causes included poverty of students, noon show cinemas, bad company and absence of parent-teacher contacts.

Among the suggestions that the heads of the schools gave to check the growing problem of absenteeism were: Psychological services for students showing lack of interest and aptitude for study, creation of better school atmosphere, parent-teacher co-operation, rewards for regular attendance and imposition of fines for habitual absentees, banning of vulgar films and noon shows, and exhibition of films of educative value in schools.

The sample survey brought to light the gravity of the problem and the necessity for a detailed study of it.

* * *

School Improvement Schemes in Madras

The Government of Madras has constituted a Committee to assess the value of gifts and donations received through the Pilot Projection Coordination Scheme which encourages voluntary contributions from the public for the improvement of schools. Many School Improvement Conferences are being held in various districts and till the end of December 1959 about 80,000 schemes have been undertaken bringing about 12,000 schools under them. The total value of the scheme being Rs. 4,69,94,381.

* * *

New Grant-in-aid Rules in Tripura

The revised Grant-in-aid rules for recurring grants, adopted by Tripura Administration, concede parity between Government and non-Government Higher Secondary, High and Junior High schools in the Territory in matters of qualifications, pay scales of teachers and tuition fee rates. The new rules are intended to remove the differences that existed between the Government and non-Government schools in order to mitigate the problems of privately managed schools and to improve their tone and standard.

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Government Nursery Training College for Women, Allahabad

Government Nursery Training College for Women, Allahabad, is a training college of State status where students selected from all over Uttar Pradesh are given training for two years in nursery education. The students are taught theory of child education and methods of different subjects and child study. There is a model school known as *Bal-Mandir* attached to the training college for the facility of the trainees who keep records of observations of children and practise teaching them. The trainees prepare their own charts, models, toys, etc. on various subjects.

A happy well-adjusted child is the goal of the nursery school. It safeguards the health of the child, helps in promoting the

child's physical, mental, social and emotional development. Children admitted in the *Bal-Mandir* have ages ranging from 2½ years to 6 years. They are divided into four groups according to the age at the time of admission.

Children are taught by Kindergarten, Montessori and Project methods. The education imparted to children is through play and activity. The steps taken in the institution to develop the personality of the child include: Encouragement of Free Activities which include indoor and outdoor activities; promotion of Constructive Work with the help of art and craft; development of Free Expression; teaching of Three R's; provision of healthy meals; insistence on nap to remove fatigue; and maintenance of Teacher's Records.

* * *

State Educational Seminar in U.P.

A three-day seminar of educational administrators, educators, and legislators was held at Tarikhet, in Uttar Pradesh. The seminar dwelt on some of the fundamental problems of education, viz. the education of backward areas and backward groups of population, problems of secondary education, the place of English in the evolving system of education, examination reforms and the new legislation specifically dealing with the security of teachers' tenure. After preliminary discussions had been held in the plenary session, the Seminar divided itself into working groups, discussed the problems in detail, and formulated solutions in the light of theoretical knowledge and practical experience. The reports of the working groups were brought to the plenary session for discussion in the larger group and amendments made wherever necessary.

The seminar decided to give fillip to women's education in the rural areas and also devised ways and means to promote the teaching of English, protect the teacher from injustice or iniquity and purge evils out of the current system of examination.

* * *

State Toys and Educational Exhibition in U.P.

A ten-day State Toys and Educational Exhibition was held at Varanasi beginning from January 10, 1960. Starting with the International Toys Exhibition held at the State's Capital in 1951, this exhibition was the fifth of its kind.

The exhibition is intended to be an annual feature and aims at impressing on the parents that children learn best with the toys. Through various types of audio-visual aids, prepared in State's Central Pedagogical Institute, Bureau of Psychology, Basic Training colleges, Constructive Training College, Women's Training colleges, Film Section, Expansion office, Extension Services Department, colleges of Physical Education and Home Science, Higher Secondary schools, Junior High schools and also Primary schools, the Educational Exhibition is intended to show the exemplary results that can be achieved when play and work are identified. The exhibits are prepared in Science and Craft laboratories, in and out of class teaching situations by students and teachers.

The Journal Section of the Education Department put on show, among other things, international journals, educational literature of India and abroad and working models, received as entries for the Students' Scientific Research Competition. Educational literature and children's literature were also largely on display in Library stalls.

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College Hostels in W. Bengal

Hostels for 33 colleges in West Bengal have been sanctioned under the financial scheme of University Grants Commission. Out of these 22 are for men and 11 for women students. The Commission sanctioned Rs. .95 lakh and Rs. 1 lakh per unit of men's and women's hostels respectively. The State Government and the colleges are meeting the balance costs.

* * *

Technical Education in Mysore

A regional Engineering College will be started from 1960-61 at Bangalore, Mysore State. A special officer has been appointed to attend to the preliminaries. The College is a joint enterprise of the Central Government and the State Government. The special feature of the College is that it will be a residential institution with adequate provision for hostels and staff quarters.

The admission capacity of the College will be 250 students a year for first degree course in Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering. Courses in Metallurgy, Chemical Engineering and other subjects will be added in due course. The entire non-recurring expenditure on College buildings and equipment and 50% of the recurring expenditure will be available for the Scheme from Government of India.

* * *

Role of Educational Statistics

The importance of educational statistics in framing policies and formulating national reconstruction plans was emphasised by Shri P. N. Kirpal, Joint Educational Adviser to the Government of India, while inaugurating a three-day seminar on the Standardisation of the Technique and Programme of Collection of Educational Statistics from Universities.

Representatives of 20 Universities participated in the seminar organised by the Union Ministry of Education at New Delhi. In his inaugural address, Shri Kirpal said that the three main tasks before the country were economic reconstruction, national unity and successful working of democracy. Education played an important role in each one of these.

Shri Kirpal said that the availability of correct figures and scientific facts were vital in the context of national planning today. He expressed the hope that the Seminar would help evolve convenient procedures for standardisation of collection of statistics.

National Awards for Teachers

Seventy-one teachers of Primary and Secondary schools were honoured this year on January 25 at New Delhi for rendering "outstanding service in their profession" when the President of India gave away the Awards to them at a special ceremony.

Speaking on the occasion, Dr. K. L. Shrimali, Minister of Education, said that the value of the Award lay not in its monetary value but "in the recognition that it seeks to give to the outstanding and selfless work of the teachers who are toiling hard under difficult circumstances for the improvement of society." This was one of the several steps which the Ministry of Education had been taking to rehabilitate the position of the teachers in the community. The Minister urged the teachers to win the respect and esteem of the people by dignified conduct and behaviour and by giving greater attention to the intellectual and social development of children who were put under their care and reminded them of their special responsibility, particularly in a period of crisis, to inculcate proper habits of thought and emotional attitudes in the younger generation.

Last year on a similar occasion Awards were given to 16 Primary and 16 Secondary teachers.

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Twenty-Seventh Meeting of the C.A.B.E.

The Twenty-seventh Meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education was held at New Delhi for two days from February 6, 1960. In the presidential address, Dr. K. L. Shrimali, Minister of Education, deplored the recent disruptive tendencies among the students and stressed the need for putting an end to "this malady which is eating into the vitals of our national life". To tackle this problem effectively, he said, the teachers should have high professional integrity and that the relationship between the students and teachers demanded improvement. "The problem of discipline is a human problem

and can be solved only in a human way".

Since it was felt that indiscipline among youth was partly due to the fact that our educational institutions had made no provision for the teaching of spiritual values, the matter was discussed at the last meeting of the CABE and a Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Shri Sri Prakasha, Governor of Bombay. The Minister said that the Committee in its report presented recently had underlined the importance of inculcating moral and spiritual values in our youth to save the nation from impending peril.

Dr. Shrimali also said that the Committee appointed under the chairmanship of Dr. C. D. Deshmukh to work out a scheme for introducing national service to divert the energies of the youth to constructive channels had also submitted its report. The Committee had recommended that all students passing out of the Higher Secondary schools or the pre-University class should be drafted for national service on a compulsory basis for a period of nine months to one year. It had further recommended that, during this period, they should be required to live under military discipline and engage themselves in productive and constructive work which would bring tangible benefits to the community. During this period they should also have some suitable form of general education to bring about greater emotional integration and orientation towards activities of national reconstruction.

As for other positive measures for providing healthy outlets for the youth, the Minister disclosed the Government's intention to launch a National Physical Efficiency Drive and the proposal to set up a National Institute for Sports.

Referring to reorganisation of Secondary education, Dr. Shrimali said that the Government were greatly exercised about giving it a more practical bias so that the students might enter trades and vocations after passing their High school examination.

Regarding the project of introducing compulsory Primary education for the age

group 6-11 that would involve the enrolment of about 200 lakhs of children with 4 lakhs of teachers at an expenditure of about Rs. 300 crores, the Minister stated that detailed studies in each State were being made. Reports about the States of Orissa, Bihar, U.P., Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Jammu and Kashmir, which were "educationally backward" were completed and discussions with the State Governments to find out ways and means of reaching the targets were under way.

In his speech Dr. Shrimali also referred to the problems of girls education and training of teachers.

"A programme of such magnitude will pose various problems and difficulties and the success of the programme will depend largely on the foresight and the ability with which the administrators execute it." He added "It will also be necessary to seek the cooperation of the community, since no amount which can be provided in the budgets of the Central and State Governments alone can ever be sufficient to meet the multifarious needs of our Primary schools".

* * *

THE FOREIGN SCENE

Comprehensive School in Sweden†

Since the turn of the present century a social movement has been under way in Sweden to provide a common elementary school for all alike, and to provide more generously than before some form of secondary education. The idea of keeping elementary and secondary education together in a unified or comprehensive school system belongs to the same pattern.

The Education Act of 1950 of Sweden outlined an experimental programme for a nine-year comprehensive school, designed to replace elementary and lower secondary schools, in the country. According to the Act, the comprehensive school is divided into three sections—the lower (Form 1-3), the middle (Form 4-6), and the upper (Form 7-9). The lower and middle sections have Form teachers and the upper section as a rule subject teachers. The

first foreign language (English) is to be a standard subject from Form 5. Vocational guidance is introduced in Forms 7 and 8, and pre-vocational training in Form 9.

Voluntary organizing of comprehensive schools on a trial basis in some districts had already begun prior to the Education Act of 1950. In 1948 more than one hundred local authorities requested to be allowed to try out the comprehensive school programme proposed by the 1946 School Commission. However, only 14 districts were permitted to start reorganisation from the year 1949-50. These pioneering districts were scattered all over the country and represented communities of varying size and structure. Some of the rural communities were, however, altogether too small to be able to provide a variety of courses and adequate teaching. In some places a number of small neighbouring districts have spontaneously tried to arrange the upper section of their comprehensive schools on a cooperative basis.

Although districts are free to choose whether or not to adopt the comprehensive schools system, the number which has done so is increasing rapidly. Statistics show that in 1957-58, 96 districts in total have reorganised their systems in a comprehensive way, as against 14 districts in 1949-50.

The 1957 School Commission has begun a survey of the controversial issues connected with comprehensive school system. Further educational research needed for this survey is being carried out by the Teachers' College of Stockholm. In connection with the evaluation made, the Commission is to suggest to what extent the comprehensive school will in future replace existing secondary schools.

* * *

Emphasis on Technical Subjects and Foreign Languages

Technical subjects and foreign languages are foremost items in the revision of secondary schooling in various countries, it is indicated by a survey appearing in the International Yearbook of Education.

†Condensed from an Article by Yngve Norinder, made available by Unesco Education Clearing House, Paris

The 20th volume of the Yearbook, which is published by Unesco and the International Bureau of Education, surveys educational progress in 64 countries in 1957-58 according to their national reports. The book includes those reports, and also statistical tables and lists of education ministry staffs.

The trend of change is shown in the findings on the introduction of new subjects into secondary schooling. Six countries reported new courses on technical subjects—principles of industry and agriculture, industrial arts and polytechnical education. The countries are Belgium, Byelorussia, Czechoslovakia, Iran, Burma and U.S.S.R.

Introduction of foreign languages was reported by Hungary and the United Arab Republic (Egypt); next, philosophy, logic and psychology, reported by Hungary and Poland; practical work, reported by France and Hungary.

Greater emphasis on subjects already in the secondary curriculum is also recorded, with mathematics given a greater place in France, Monaco, Sweden and the United States; Polytechnical education, in Bulgaria, Byelorussia and Czechoslovakia; science, in the United Arab Republic (Egypt) and the United States, and foreign languages in the United States. Other instances of new emphasis include physical culture, in Byelorussia and the United States; music, in Bulgaria and Byelorussia; history, in the Ukraine; moral education and civic education, in the United Arab Republic (Egypt).

Only one country, France, has reduced the place given to a subject. The number of teaching periods for Latin has been reduced, in order to provide more periods for mathematics and especially more time for practical work in physics.

The survey shows vocational education on the increase, with greater specialization. It also describes the revisions of primary curricula now taking place in some countries along with changes in secondary schooling.

* * *

Radio University in Moscow

A university of literature and the arts has been opened by Radio Moscow. It is intended to give the radio listeners information on literature, music, theatre, graphic arts and the cinema.

The university seeks to introduce the basic achievements of Russian and world classical art and Soviet culture in a systematic form, showing the bonds between literature and the other arts, such as music, graphic arts, drama and films, the links between music and the theatre.

Three cycles of broadcasts will cover the syllabus. The first will be devoted to Soviet literature and other arts, and the second to classical Russian literature of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century. The third cycle will deal with literature and the arts abroad.

* * *

WCOTP to Collect Poems for Children

A WCOTP project to collect children's poems from many countries for publication has been started as a result of a suggestion made at the 1959 Assembly of Delegates and later approved by the Confederation's Executive Committee.

The suggestion was made as a means of implementing WCOTP's 1959 theme, "Teaching Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values."

The poems will be compiled for the age groups 7-9, 10-11, 12-14. They will be translated into English and very simply annotated. After the first collection in English has been distributed, the possibility of translation into other languages will be investigated.

* * *

Parents Teach for a Day

More than 100 residents of Glen Cove (United States) assumed unfamiliar roles for a day when they ran this North shore community's five elementary schools.

Housewives, businessmen and professional persons, many of whom had been away from school longer than they cared to remember, returned to teach all classes from kindergarten through sixth grade and assumed administrative and clerical duties.

The "Teacher for a Day" experiment was to acquaint the town with what was going on in schools.

* * *

Drive Against Juvenile Crime

The High School Teachers Association in New York charged recently that juvenile delinquency stems partly from books, magazines, motion pictures and television programmes that undermine the morals of teen-agers.

"The abuse of these media served to create generally a false picture of American life and standards of character not only in our own country but also abroad," a resolution of the association's executive committee said.

The teachers asked that a study be made with "a view to protecting our high school students from these demoralizing influences."

The teachers' resolution was one in a series of developments in the broadening drive by officials and citizens groups against juvenile crime.

* * *

Fund-Raising Campaign of Colleges in U.S.

The presidents of most of the nation's independent colleges of U.S. started a fund-raising campaign recently that was believed without parallel in higher education. They hope to raise \$9,000,000 for their non-tax-supported institutions.

Whereas in the past the presidents have acted independently or within their state organizations, they are now about to move on a national basis with the Independent College Funds of America in acting as their coordinator and clearing house.

The organization formed in December 1958 includes forty state agencies representing 477 private colleges.

* * *

Liaison in Commonwealth Education

Representatives of all member countries of the Commonwealth attended a meeting in London on October 27, 1959 to work out a plan to set up a Commonwealth education liaison committee.

According to the plan the Committee should be composed of one representative of each member country of the Commonwealth and of Nigeria. In addition, the United Kingdom would appoint a member to represent other colonial territories.

The Committee would, in particular, prepare material for submission to the next Commonwealth Education Conference in 1961. Sir Philip Morris, Vice-Chancellor of Bristol University, who was Chairman of the Oxford Conference, has agreed to be Chairman of the liaison committee.

Under the general direction of the liaison committee, there would be a commonwealth education liaison unit, which would initially consist of a director (who would also be Secretary to the committee) and one administrative assistant.

* * *

U.S. Educator on Unesco Mission to Indonesia

A New York University educator with 35 years' experience as teacher and school administrator is taking up a new task, as a school curriculum expert in Indonesia on assignment from Unesco. The expert will have an important task as an adviser for the programme of school expansion in Indonesia, with particular reference to primary school curriculum, within the framework of the Unesco mission assisting the Indonesian educational authorities. This will include the training of Indonesian educators in curriculum development (Unesco).

* * *



book r e v i e w s

How to be a Successful Headmaster : By Shri Jaswant Singh; Published by University Publishers, Jullundur City; 1959; Price Rs. 10; pp. 223

The headmaster is considered the key person in the school. His role has been changing with the time and the changing philosophy of education. In olden days, the headmaster was a dictator. So his role was very easy. But in the present age of democracy the work of the headmaster has become very difficult. He is confronted with different problems in his sphere which is so varied. Now, the Headmaster is required to be the embodiment of qualities of leadership, and must have the knowledge of new ideas. He is considered to be an expert and cultured man. He must acquire the knowledge of the basic philosophy of life. The author rightly describes that these qualities may be hereditary, no doubt, but most of them can be achieved by experience.

There are only a few good books written by Indian authors on this important subject. The book under review is really a treasure for the headmasters, whether they have been long in the line or are new entrants. The author has dealt with every aspect of even the most minute work, which a headmaster is required to do.

The book contains twenty-one chapters. But for getting a general view of the book it may be classified into six important headings, viz. (1) *The Headmaster* : who must have the general scholarship, professional training, knowledge of human relationship, physical and mental health and the qualities of personality etc. The author

has taken up each of the above topics in detail. (2) *The School* : This includes school plant and equipment, the school supplies, library and science material. All these items require a thorough knowledge on the part of the headmaster if the school, the students and the community are to be benefited. The writer lays stress upon four "R's" :—

- Right material and equipment to the
- Right place at the
- Right time and to see that they are used in the
- Right way.

(3) *The Students* : The headmaster must not forget that the student is the most important factor in the school. He must take the students in confidence alongwith the teachers while thinking for and doing something for the school. Co-curricular activities, guidance, discipline and punishment, evaluation and promotion policies have been thoroughly discussed. The headmaster is expected to prepare the programme for the students, keeping in mind the total development of the students' personality. (4) *Community* : is also another factor which must get due attention. If the school caters to the needs of the community, then the work of the school is really valuable, otherwise, it matters little, whether the school is there or not. So it becomes the duty of the headmaster that he thinks of ways and means of how to associate the school with the community. The author has done justice by quoting "Edmonson et al" while dealing with this important topic. (5) *The Teacher* : The recruitment of the teacher is another important factor, which requires great care. The teacher

who really has a love for the profession should come to the school. The teacher must be such as enjoys his work. The headmaster must not think the teacher as his subordinate. He should work as a leader and not as a dictator. He is required to be helpful to the new-comer. (6) *Administration*: includes the daily schedule, supervision, and inspection. The headmaster has to take work from, and to satisfy, all concerned with his administration. Thus he has a great responsibility.

The author being in the field of education since long has assembled in this volume the ideas of foreign educators together with his own experience with the idea that the new suggestions will be of immense utility to the new-comers in the field and will lessen the burden of those who are already there.

The style of the book is readable, simple, lucid and practical. There is a touch of humour here and there in some of the practical suggestions given on handling some of the situations confronting the headmasters. The book is very useful and the reader can use it as a helper in understanding the principles inherent in the educational process.

P. S. JAIN

The Afro-Asian States and their Problems:

By K. M. Panikkar; Published by George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London; Price 12 Sh. 6 d.; pp. 104

This little volume contains a summarised version of six lectures delivered by Shri K. M. Panikkar at the *institut d'Etude de Developpement Economique et Social*, of the Sorbonne, in Paris. It deals with the problems facing the newly independent States of Asia and Africa.

Between 1945 and 1957 many countries in Asia and Africa emerged from their colonial and dependent position and attained the status of sovereign and independent States. From Indonesia in the Pacific to Morocco on the Atlantic Coast, a new community of Asian and African nations who had been in the 19th and early

20th century under the political tutelage of European nations were liberated from their bondage and had the right of shaping their own destinies. The problems that demand immediate attention of these countries are in many respects similar. There is the necessity of a stable political organisation with administrative services competent to run a modern government. The economy of these countries, formerly adjusted to the policies of the metropolitan government, has of necessity to be re-oriented and re-organised. Their social system has to be modernised.

The period has been revolutionary in the widest sense. The new States are confronted with problems of unparalleled complexity and magnitude in different spheres—political, economic and social. Shri Panikkar has critically analysed and drawn pointed attention to some of the problems which the new Afro-Asian States have to face and which they have to solve if they are to function as members of the world community.

The difficulty of working the democratic form of government to which the new States had originally opted has been lucidly explained. The absence of democratic tradition in most of the States in the colonial regime has been a serious handicap to the establishment of democratic institutions. Democracy, again, cannot function without an administrative machinery of trained competence to ensure stability and provide the personnel necessary to implement the social and economic changes. Unless the States can develop a balanced economy by increased production of wealth and exploitation of the resources necessary for their functioning as separate units under modern progressive conditions, there will always be a danger of stagnation or even of falling back. Already the experiment has broken down in some States while in some other States it is on the breaking point.

The neglect of education of the people of these countries in the colonial regime has given rise to colossal problems for educating the citizens under the new set-up. The democratic system of government adopted in India and experimented in most

of the other new States has made the problem of universal education urgent. The most difficult question in this connection is that of the common national language. Universal education, to be effective, must be in the language of the country itself. None of these countries however, have a language which can immediately serve as a medium for teaching and official purposes. The new States thus have to provide a universal education to their people in the face of almost super-human difficulties. They have at the same time to provide for a wide system of higher education to tackle the administrative economic and political problems. They must also provide technical and technological education to serve the scientific and industrial needs of the country under the competitive conditions of the modern age.

While the author has given a critical analysis of the problems facing the countries, there is not enough positive and practical suggestion for their solution. Problems there have been, and problems there will ever be. It is for intellectuals to show the way as to how to deal with them and solve them to the best advantage of the nations concerned. Judged by this standard the lectures embodied in the book do not satisfy the hopes with which one would begin reading a book from the pen of an eminent scholar and practical statesman of the calibre and status of the author. Nonetheless, the book has focussed attention on some of the most difficult problems the new States will be bound to solve if they are to maintain their sovereign and independent existence in the new world.

S. B.

School Before Five: By Betty Willsher: Published by Faber & Faber Ltd., London; Price 10 Sh. 6 d.; 1959

School Before Five is an excellent book for all anxious parents who wish to know how best they can educate their child. To questions such as, 'Ought I to send my child to a Nursery School? If I don't, will he miss anything vital to his welfare? If I send him, when should he go? At Two, or Three, or Four?', I recommend the

above book, for in it will be found the answers to them.

The book holds the reader's attention from the very first page, as it is full of illustrations taken from the author's own teaching experiences.

For parents who wish to teach their child at home, Betty Willsher, a mother herself, clearly points out the dangers—"to teach a child before he is ready to start, is a waste of time—not to teach him when the moment has arrived, is also a waste of time—if you struggle to teach him, when he is not ready for it, you are embarking on a dangerously damaging procedure."

The chapter on Playtime shows clearly, that although the child has full freedom to enjoy himself with apparatus provided, yet he is taught to respect his toys, books, etc. Even very young children can be taught to help mother or teacher to tidy up the playroom.

Some parents are disturbed if their child is slow in beginning to read. This may be, that they themselves are too busy to read to the child. If you read to them interesting stories, and they wish to be read to, it would be the beginning of wanting to read. Book shops are full of colourful and interesting books, but parents find it difficult to choose books that will suit their child. Choosing a good book depends on the age and interest of the child. Stories of toys and animals are most enjoyed by those under Five. Betty Willsher is most helpful in mentioning a number of suitable books in her chapter Books and Stories.

School Before Five is a valuable guide not only for parents, but also for teachers of the Nursery and Kindergarten schools. The book contains an exhaustive list of activities that help a little child to be happily engaged all day—an enlightening guide to parents in doubt.

E. K. CHRISTIE

The Inner Circle—The Memoirs of Ivone Kirkpatrick: Published by MacMillan and Co. London; 1959; p. 275; Price 25 Sh.

The Inner Circle is a fascinating account by a retired diplomat of his own part on the

European stage during a fateful period spanned by two World Wars. Mr. Kirkpatrick had a distinguished diplomatic career as a top official of the Western Department of the British Foreign Office, of the British Embassies at Rome and Berlin, as British member of the Allied Control Commission in Germany, Political Adviser to the Supreme Commander General Eisenhower, Assistant Under Secretary, first in charge of Information Departments and later of the Western Department of the Foreign Office and finally as High Commissioner in Germany and Permanent Under Secretary of the Foreign Office. During this period, he had worked with several Foreign Secretaries—Lord Curzon, Austen Chamberlain, Arthur Henderson, Herbert Morrison, Ernest Bevin and Anthony Eden. He worked on the Disarmament question with Stanley Baldwin and Lord Robert Cecil and attended the conference on Tangier.

In 1930, he worked in British Embassy in Rome. He states that the British refusal to accede to the express request of Mussolini to extend the term of the British Ambassador, Sir Ronald Graham, had caused the first rift in Anglo-Italian relations. He feels that Graham was the only man who could possibly have restrained Mussolini from embarking on his Abyssinian adventure.

His arrival in Berlin coincided with the Nuremberg Party Rally and subsequent German withdrawal from the Disarmament Conference and the League of Nations. The author gives a vivid account of the purge of 30th June in which Reichs minister Roehm and six prominent S.A. leaders were killed and of the rigged up revolt in Vienna leading to the murder of Dr. Dollfuss. Referring to the talks of Sir John Simon and Anthony Eden in March 1935 with Hitler on general European settlement, the author deplores the vacillating Western policy to Hitler which led the British Government to crown their stress and Geneva protests by a naval treaty with Germany fixing at 100 : 35 the permanent ratio of the British and German fleets. He considers the year 1936 as the turning point in Hitler's bid

for domination of Europe. Hitler's reoccupation of the Rhineland without any active British opposition had convinced Hitler that he could get away with anything.

The author gives a graphic account of the talks Lord Halifax, Lord President of the Council, had with Hitler in November 1937 and portrays the bullying tactics of the latter and the dazed amazement and repugnance of Halifax when Hitler suggested the shooting of Gandhi and other Congress leaders as the only way to show that Britain meant business in India.

The author expresses disappointment at the absence of any strong reaction in Britain to Hitler's *coup* in and absorption of Austria. He was present at the Berchtesgaden and Godesberg talks between Hitler and Neville Chamberlain on the Sudeten German question. He expresses doubt on the propriety of British objection to military occupation of Sudetenland on the ground that if Britain agreed to the cession of the territory, it seemed illogical to object to its military occupation and to insist on inflicting the Gestapo rather than the army on the inhabitants. The author was also present at the Four Power Munich Conference and says that the French were resolved to reach agreement at any cost and gave the impression that Czechoslovakia was to be blamed for having brought all trouble on Europe. The Munich surrender, says Kirkpatrick, had stunned the Czechs and the Germans had little difficulty in imposing their will; Britain had allowed Hitler to put himself in a position to blackmail the world. He feels, however, that militarily and psychologically, Britain was not ready to fight Hitler and so had to bid time to make good both deficiencies.

The author was chosen to identify Rudolf Hess when the latter parachuted himself into Scotland and later interviewed the other German leaders as prisoners of war and gives interesting pen portraits of the erstwhile German leaders. He was closely associated with the negotiation of the Bonn Treaty and the E.D.C. Treaty and in this connection worked with several British and European leaders.

The strategic position occupied by the author during some three decades of inter-war and post-war period enabled him to watch the fateful events from a close range and the reflections in *The Inner Circle* constitute a valuable tribute to the position and personality of the author as a consummate diplomatist.

C. K.

A Passage to England: By Nirad C. Chaudhari; Published by MacMillan and Co., Bombay; 1959

This is a record of the visit paid by Mr. Chaudhari during the spring of 1955 for five weeks to England and for one week each in Rome and Paris. The book tells us of the various sights that Mr. Chaudhari saw in England and his reflections on men and things. It was a happy idea of the British Broadcasting Corporation to have invited Mr. Chaudhari to pay this visit which was a long-cherished desire of the writer. Mr. Chaudhari was eminently qualified for the privilege accorded to him because it would appear from the book that he is one of those Indians who, due to an assiduous study of a lifetime had completely 'soaked' himself with European history, literature, art and culture. The writer, from his long years of study had already formed an idea of what he expected to see during his visit and the value of the visit can be measured in his own words when he confesses that he saw and experienced during this short period more than what he had experienced in all his life before. As can be expected, Mr. Chaudhari has packed in this volume of about 230 pages the whole panorama of present day European life particularly the life in England. He tells us of the things that reminded him of the 'Timeless England' which were evident to him from the architecture of the ancient Cathedrals and the stately English homes which he visited as a sight-seer. His thought-provoking remarks on the patterns of social behaviour of the people in England, though seen in side-lights, are born out of deep insight and close observation, the gifts which the author brought to bear in abundant measure. In this connection, it would have been better if the writer had avoided and restrained his

propensity to compare the things that he saw with the things at home. His visit, for instance, to a bank counter and the promptness with which he had his cheque honoured need not have provoked any adverse remarks about the conduct of the man at the counter in an Indian bank. Nor need he have reflected on the conduct of the fellow-passengers in buses in Delhi while seeing how differently people behave in buses in England. The different patterns of conduct are the product of various circumstances and it is not a happy thought for a traveller to judge his own people from what he sees elsewhere in different environments of a society with different traditions.

In spite of Mr. Chaudhari's love for the 'Timeless England', the writer has not failed to be struck by the rapid changes which the Welfare State has brought about since the war in the life of the English people and the new industrial advancement and enormous building activity which is changing the face of the English countryside. Though the landscape may get a little blurred and one may not be able to accost Farmer Oak walking in Hardy's Wessex, yet the face of England remains smiling and no change can transform the once formed personality of the nation.

The book, all told, makes fascinating reading for those who have long been nurtured and have drunk deep from the fountain of English Literature and art.

G. R. S.

Friends and their Children: By Harold Loukes; Published by George G. Harrap and Co. Ltd., London; Price 9 Sh. 6 d. pp. 128

The Society of Friends (Quakers) is a small community which has contributed much to social reform. Their method of bringing up children is based on common sense and reason, and the desire to draw out latent good rather than teach a set of rigid principles. This book expresses a Quaker's ideas on the education of children in the disturbing conditions of the modern world. It advocates the value and importance of religious education at a time when people are decrying it from all angles.

Nevertheless the right to indoctrinate our children with certain religious ideologies and principles is questioned in the framework of the liberty of the individual.

The Quaker viewpoint is neither dogmatic nor anti-dogmatic, but is undogmatic. It asserts that religious education forms an essential and integral part of the child's complete education but it should be undogmatic, an education which does not depend upon any external religious authority. It denies the power of one man to determine the religious life of another. The author advocates that the child should be exposed to religious experience, and should be encouraged to see, to choose and to respond for himself. He has to be shown and not told. Such experience creates the right conditions for growth in the various stages of the child's life.

Instruction in morals must be given, but moral training is not to be given in terms of religious absolutes. "Moral training there must always be, the rules of the house must be explained and enforced and anti-social impulses must be controlled. But children's misbehaviour is not to be regarded as sinful or as carrying with it the implications of guilt." It is brought out that the heart of an infant's religion is mother worship. She is his deity in whom he lives and moves and has his being. She has to give the child an experience of love and security which is strong and satisfying. But the love of parents is not to be possessive. "Possessive love is a mark of usurpation, robbing a child of his selfhood before he is aware of it and seeking to establish dependence instead of to nurture towards independence".

In the section on "First Years at School", the author rightly remarks that it is essential for parents and teachers to prepare the child for the school. The atmosphere of the school should be homely and affectionate. If we want our children to grow straight, certain needs must be met, both at school and at home, particularly at home. Let them have a knowledge of things rather than of words. Teaching from life is preferable to teaching

from books. Surround the child with experiences and contacts with nature, and if he asks for reasons give them; this is very similar to what Rousseau advocates.

Children need to be friendly with other adults like their parents, and they need also, a rich variety of relationships with their peers. "Children brought up in security and affection, their daily lives shared richly with their parents, are plainly demonstrable, different from children born to insecurity and loneliness," we are told.

Four foundations of Christian experience for the Quaker children are mentioned: a sense of belonging, joy in the world of nature, widening and deepening human relationships, and an entry into the aspirations of the spirit through stores of man at this height. The great need of a ripening child is for the awakening of a wide power of joy in joyous things, for the release of his spontaneous impulse towards life and creation.

The adolescent's need is greatly fulfilled by the Quakers' characteristic emphasis on first hand experience. The Quaker's Meeting is a form of worship into which people can grow. The most important help that parents can give in developing a working philosophy of life is to demonstrate one that works. Adolescents need a hope of the realisation of their ideals. The young are ready to believe that the world can be improved, and, for all their insecurity, they are ready to believe that they have a part to play in improving it. The ambulance unit and kindred activities are means of presenting avenues to meet this challenge.

The Quaker school is generally a small school in which the children and their teachers get to know one another. The religious life of the school is in line with the needs of the pupils. There is singing of hymns, narration of Bible stories and silent prayer, in the school. The Quaker school sets out to demonstrate the possibilities of living in a community. The familiar hierarchy of school life, headmaster, staff, prefects, is found at work, but the hierarchy is not built up by artificial prestige. It is assumed as a necessary piece of mechanism, but the lines of communication are

kept open throughout, so that ideas and action can spring up from below, as well as pass down from above.

This book besides describing in a lucid manner the system of Quaker education, provides interesting reading material for teachers, psychologists and those who have the care and direction of the young in their hands. In spite of the fact that some of the references from the Bible may not be clear to the lay reader, nevertheless the entire tone of the book is of a very high order, and the ideals it sets forth are laudable. A short bibliography of pertinent references on the psychology of religious teaching further adds to the value of the book.

B. D. BHATIA

Methods of Teaching Home Science: Published by Shri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore

This is a 600 page report on the seminar-cum-training course held between the 24th of March and 27th of April, 1958, under the auspices of the All-India Council for Secondary Education. The reason for the book to be so large is that everything that took place at the seminar is reported and every word uttered seems to have been recorded. It produces a maze that contains everything one would need to know about the background of Home Science teaching in India, the ideas developed around it, the techniques that work and their exposition, the references one may wish to consult, as well as a luxury of advice, analyses, and comments offered by the goodwill of those who took part in the course.

It will serve those who can (i) disregard so much that is irrelevant; (ii) patiently go through, at times, pedestrian, pompous, trivial arguments; and (iii) make the effort of finding what they need in the terrific amount of verbiage presented there.

One can understand that it is difficult to separate for publication speeches from reports by experts, and create an invidious situation by quoting one rather than another. But a book with that title would attract readers who might feel misled on reading it. It is doubtful if the readers in

general can be interested in so much that finds its way in this book, for it is topical and incidental. One cannot make up one's mind about whether it is a report to be sent out to people as a souvenir of the seminar or it claims to contain so much good stuff that all teachers of Home Science should acquire it and study it. As a Report it has many merits and can be enjoyed. It gives ideas for the preparation of future seminars. It will indicate what to do and what to avoid. But it can hardly be read by all Home Science teachers, for it seems that teachers who would become its readers deserve more consideration, and it is for the authors to do the work of sifting, evaluating, classifying data for their use. One could even go to the extent of saying that if the Report is intended to serve as a text, it would only discourage those for whom it is meant as such. There is such page-loads of material in it that the readers would not be assisted in growing in the subject to the best of their ability, but would be likely to feel scattered in their concentration while going through it. The readers would want guidance in a way that they can save their energy and come to the point as well as they may.

Perhaps, another point could be made here taking this publication as an opportunity for stressing it. As already too many words are being used by educators, could the profession pledge itself to saying in as few words as possible, as much as possible? In that respect it seems that the real content of the book under review could be compressed into, say a 100-page booklet to be much more effective for use by teachers. We hope that the very competent Director of the seminar will think of producing a compact version of this book, thinking of the readers more than of the participants.

SHAKTI DUTTA

They Steal for Love: By Anthony Weaver; Published by Max Parrish, London; 1959; Price 12 Sh. 6 d.; pp., 129

Child care to-day is considered as the first charge of a welfare State and growing number of people in the field—educationists,

psychologists, paediatricians, house-parents, social workers and Magistrates—are engaged in the assessment of various social forces, working on the unit of family, which generally go to make the success or the failure of their task. Vagabond tendencies in children have of late been on the increase and have partly been due to broken families and partly for rapid industrialization and increasing trends toward urbanization. Schools in such a situation have a definite social role to play because a maladjusted child needs a school closely suited to compensate for the inadequacies of the home from which emotional problems spring and where adequate maternal affection has been denied to them.

Weaver's book *They Steal For Love* is a dispassionate study of the causes of juvenile delinquency and an inside story of the functioning of the Lammas House which was responsible for the reception of children beyond control and those convicted for indictable offences. Although originally intended to deal with "pre-delinquent children" who fall outside the scope of 1944 Education Act for Handicapped Children, in practice it became difficult to select emotionally disturbed but ascertained maladjusted children and therefore, it functioned primarily for potential delinquents who were three years retarded in basic subjects and were having a history of truancy and resistance to schooling.

Lying on the outskirts of a village in a farming country, the Lammas House was suitably situated for developing a friendly atmosphere and even for breaking initial hostility of the delinquent towards residential institutes. Children were mostly collected from homes for providing a better background of the family and for the convenience of the group therapy. Love, companionship, and expression were the three essential ingredients of the life there and it helped to develop maturity in children. In this the author has mostly been influenced by the views of the Ian Suttie expressed in *The Origin of Love and Hate*.

The book can be divided into three major sections, namely (a) the group work and

the process of re-education, (b) Psychiatrists' role with parents and children, and (c) follow-up studies. The author is of the opinion that once the emotional factors have been detached, the group work can do wonders not only in the process of re-adjustment of the potential delinquents—except in cases of extreme emotional problems—but even in stimulating reading and education. Throughout the book care has been taken to explain each step with the help of detailed case histories of patients and the analyses of their symptoms. Towards the end, the book includes an impressive list of professional and voluntary organizations engaged in this type of work and a well-classified bibliography dealing with (a) the causes and symptoms of maladjustment; (b) residential treatment; and (c) remedial work and sociological studies.

The book is unique in the sense that it is one of the few attempts to deal with pre-delinquent residential children and in raising some of fundamental problems in the social structure of family like the role of "an inadequate father" as against the "fear of the father" in a welfare state where family is no longer an economic unit and its role in dictatorial societies. However, in terms of richness of description and treatment in a residential home, Aichhorn's *Wayward Youth* would perhaps continue to remain unsurpassed.

P. D. KHERA

Engineering Education in Russia: By Stephen P. Timoshenko; Published by McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., New York; 1959; Price \$ 2.75; pp. 47

One of the world's outstanding teachers, Professor Timoshenko, gives a first-hand analysis of engineering education in Russia in this brief but important book. He gives a brief history of the development of Russian engineering education and discusses its present state. As a result of experience gained during a visit to the Soviet technical and engineering schools, in 1958 and with a personal knowledge of the Russian educational system during pre-revolutionary days the author is suc-

cessful in describing the Russian educational system. When he was writing the book a complete collection of curricula (1958) of all the Russian engineering schools, programmes for many of the subjects taught in those schools and Russian textbooks in various fields of mechanics and mathematics were with him.

Professor Stephen Prokofievitch Timoshenko describes some important Russian engineering schools as they are organised today and briefly compares the curricula of American and Russian schools, with some details about graduate and undergraduate teaching of engineering mechanics in Russia. The role of research institutions of the Russian Academy of Sciences in the preparation of young scientists for higher academic degrees is also described.

In the author's opinion the traditions of the old schools have proved to be very strong and in cooperation with the remnants of the old teaching staffs, it was possible to bring order into the organisation of engineering education, which was disrupted at the time of the revolution. Now-a-days, Russia has a large number of engineering schools with adequate teaching staff and satisfactory equipment and future engineers can get the necessary training for undergraduateship. The graduate programmes have been organised and special programmes have been developed for training of research engineers in most of the fields of engineering. Thus, the author feels, favourable conditions for further development of the engineering sciences have been created and at present Russia is in a leading position in several such fields.

The book provides ample information useful to those interested in higher engineering education in Russia.

S. K. KANSAL

Hypnosis—Fact and Fiction: By F. L. Marcuse; Published by Penguin Books; Price 3 Sh. 6 d.; pp. 224

Having been relegated to oblivion for many years the study and practice of hypnosis began to attract increasing attention

of both the lay-public and medical profession since World War II. A cursory glance at the literature published in the field of medicine, psychiatry and psychology would reveal that there is a plethora of books published on hypnosis these days. The lay reader is puzzled to make the right choice of a book which would present an authoritative and scientifically valid account of this so-called "mysterious art". Dr. Marcuse's contribution on hypnosis admirably fulfils this need.

One of the fundamental features of Dr. Marcuse's book is to show that the study of hypnosis forms a legitimate subject for scientific investigation by a trained psychologist. It explodes the mythical belief, which has been current so far, that hypnosis belongs to the realm of super-natural and uncanny. He discusses in detail the objective signs by which the hypnotizability of the subject may be judged; the role of personality of the hypnotist and the medical use of hypnosis. The experimental use of hypnosis—a new field of scientific research—has also been given equal attention.

This book can be strongly recommended to any one who may be genuinely interested to know the present status of hypnosis in both—experimental and applied science. By virtue of its low price it should appeal to a wide circle of readers.

L. C. BHANDARI

Practical Botany for the Tropics: By W. O. Howarth and L. G. G. Warne; Published by University of London Press Ltd.; London; 1959; pp. 238

Most of the textbooks on botany fulfil the needs of temperate regions. The handicap for those interested in botany as it refers to tropical regions is natural. The strain is all the more severe on students who would wish to carry out laboratory experiments under tropical conditions. It is here that the valuable book entitled "Practical Botany for the Tropics" fills in the gap as a laboratory manual for students in the early years of a university course.

The subject matter is presented in a very lucid style in 28 chapters. It starts with the morphology of vegetative shoots, resting and storage organs of biennial and perennial plants, types of inflorescence, flower structure, fruits, seeds and seedlings, etc. Then follows a very useful chapter on "Chemical Tests for Organic Plant Constituents" like carbohydrates, starch, insulin, cellulose, lignin, proteins, fats and oils with a number of tests for each constituent useful for its detection. It is essential for the practical worker to have some basic idea of the construction and working of the microscope. Eighth chapter "Exercises in the Use of Microscope" describes these with the aid of plates, and explains various operations like section cutting, mounting, method of irrigation, staining and measurement with the microscope. Phenomena of inhibition, osmosis and permeability are also well explained. The chapters that follow describe the structure of the stems, roots, leaves, floral organs and water-absorption, storage, transport and loss in plants. There are interesting chapters on cell metabolism, enzymes, H. values, respiration in flora, carbohydrate synthesis, etc. The concluding chapters discuss the algae, fungi, pteridophyta and gymnosperms.

Four appendices are included giving the composition and uses of various reagents and their strengths, sources of obtaining the materials, molecular weights of a number of pertinent compounds with their chemical formulae and some conversion data. An exhaustive subject index is also appended at the end of the book. The value of the book is enhanced due to the fact that the exercises given require no special or more costly equipment and the material required is commonly available. The twelve plates have made the subject more easy to understand.

The authors deserve appreciation for the attempt they have made to fulfil the long-felt want of a laboratory manual of this type. It is hoped that the students and teachers will make full use of the book in conjunction with suitable textbooks and lectures.

S. P. GARG

The Playground as Music Teacher: By Madeleine Carabocone; Published by Harper and Brothers, New York; Price \$ 5

This book is an introduction to Music through games. Children hop, skip and leap in over a hundred indoor and outdoor games. These are mostly street games, requiring no special equipment. They are played in a musical staff, marked on the playground. Children sing and play on lines and spaces of the Treble and Bass Staff that comprise the Grand staff used for piano music. Enjoying their favourite games they find their way into the fascinating world of music.

The author, Madeleine Carabo-Cone, has contrived methods for teaching the fundamentals of music in terms and activities familiar to the child enabling him through play to read music soon.

The games described in the book are designed to channel the child's motor energy into learning activities and acquiring effortlessly a knowledge of the fundamentals of music. The games that are elementary develop rhythm and reading concepts and are meant for children from 5 to 7, while the intermediate games afford familiarity with the key board and are for children of 7 to 8 years. The advanced games progress as far as basic chords in various keys and are meant for children of 8 to 10 years, but all have first to master the elementary and intermediate games. Along with these games are games of coordination, time value and rhythm such as Feeling the Beat, Conducting Design, Banner Flying, Story Telling, Time Value, Hand Movements, Counting Measure, Counting on the Fingers and Measure Rule.

The games adopted by the author for learning music on the playground retain their intrinsic elements of suspense excitement, competition, luck, muscular activity energy release and secrecy.

An important feature of the book is the coincidence of the alphabetical and progressive arrangement of games within each class. The child's sensory perception, rhythmic coordination and visual alertness, are sharpened and concentration developed while

they enjoy a variation of their favourite games on the musical staff playground. The methods used make the most of psychological principles of self-involvement by the child during the learning process. The larger muscles of the legs and arms are brought into action while the delicate muscles of the eye are not strained. The perceptual objects of the child world are utilized in making the musical symbols alive. The imaginary middle C line mentioned in several games appeal to a child's fantasy yet serve as a valid explanation of one of the important points of the musical staff. Thus unconsciously they acquire the foundations of musical literacy.

The book is of value to those who have no musical training. Instructions are direct and concise, containing specific musical knowledge underlying the games.

The *Playground as Music Teacher* is not only illuminative but invaluable to playground directors, community centres, schools, camps and parents for spreading musical literacy.

LEELA LAKSHMANAN

Illustrated Income-Tax Law: By B. D. Nagpal; Price Rs. 7.50; pp. 380

Elements of Life Insurance: By O. P. Bajpai; Price Rs. 5; pp. 185; 1959; Published by Kitab Mahal, Allahabad

Illustrated Income-tax Law as the title indicates is an attempt to bring home to an average student this complicated subject through easy illustrations and simple language. Unfortunately, Income Tax is a subject in which foreign literature can be of little help because the law differs from country to country according to the differences in socio-economic conditions and the forms of the State. So far as India is concerned, there is paucity of such published material as may be useful to those trying to understand the principles and problems involved in the subject. This book, which is not meant for experts and professional accountants but is addressed to students of Commerce and Law, will serve its purpose well. The test questions given at the end of each chapter and their

answers given in an Appendix at the end have added to the value of the book. The amendments made by the Finance Act of 1958, so far as they have affected the book, have been discussed chapterwise in an *Addendum*.

Life insurance is protection as well as investment. It not only protects the insured against "economic death" but mobilises his savings towards profitable channels. It has a social aspect too. It is beneficial to the community in as much as it provides finances for the economic development of a country. Life insurance has not yet made a mark in India where the life of hardly one man out of a hundred is insured at present. We have to carry the life insurance scheme to our masses not only because we have to augment our resources to finance our Five-Year Plans but also because they stand in dire need of this very important social service. *Elements of Life Insurance* explains the principles of this subject in simple and lucid language and gives up-to-date information about the present position of life insurance in India. Though primarily written for Commerce students of our universities, it might be equally useful to the practical worker in the field as well as the general public.

ANIS AHMAD SIDDIQI

School Organisation : By Paul Verghese; 1959; price Rs. 2.50; pp. 120

Products and Processes : By G. R. Kelkar and M. S. Verde; pp. 122; Published by MacMillan and Co. Ltd., Bombay

School Organisation is a guide and handbook for teachers in training institutions. The writer is an experienced teacher and this book comes very handy to the teacher-trainee. The popularity of this small handbook is evident from the fact that it has run into several editions. The present edition has been published in revised form.

The author has described the organisation of a school under eleven heads. Under 'What is Organisation?' and 'Material Conditions' the basic conditions for properly

organising a school are given. In the chapters on 'The Head Master' and 'The Inspector' are described and discussed the two most important and vital parts of a school. Due emphasis has been laid on the importance of preparing the school Time Table, on which depends most the smooth and successful running of a school. Physical Education which is gaining in importance in our present system of education has also been described in a passing fashion. The usefulness of the booklet has been considerably enhanced by the 'Questions' given in the Appendices. All told, this should be quite a useful helpbook for the teacher-trainees.

Product and Processes is a small and elementary book on the natural resources and their different uses in our country. It is illustrated and the facts are presented in easy language and lucid style. The students will be able to acquire elementary knowledge of India's natural resources from this small book.

SATYAWATI VERMA

A General Survey of Sindhi Language and Literature: By Prof. Manohar Dass K. Khilnani; 1959; Price 50 nP; Obtainable from the author, Sheel Nivas, 39-E, Kamla-nagar, Delhi-6.

This booklet, as the title indicates, surveys, within a brief space of 23 pages, the history and development of the Sindhi Language and Literature. The author, quoting in his support certain notable authorities in the field, establishes the hoary antiquity of Sindhi language, contemporaneous almost with Aryan settlement in the Sindhu valley. He also outlines the extent of Sindhi language, the varied composition and richness of its vocabulary. The development of literature, old and new, has been dealt with under the various sub-heads of prose in general, drama, poetry, novels and short stories. The author had also appended a valuable list of 'worth-reading' books in Sindhi language.

The booklet contains no preface or introduction. Obviously it is not meant for

serious study, but it will prove useful to a general reader in acquainting himself with Sindhi language and literature. It would, however, have served its purpose better had it been produced a little more attractively and priced less.

(1) **ग्रिम की कहानियाँ** :—लेखक ग्रिम; अनुवादक डा० विष्णुस्वरूप; प्रकाशक हिन्दी प्रचारक पुस्तकालय, वाराणसी; मूल्य 2.50 रु०; 1959

(2) **श्रेष्ठ कहानियाँ**—लेखक हैन्स एण्डरसन; अनुवादक डा० विष्णुस्वरूप; प्रकाशक हिन्दी प्रचारक पुस्तकालय, वाराणसी; मूल्य 2.25 रु०; 1959

बच्चों के मनोरंजन के लिए अथवा किसी विशेष उद्देश्य की प्रेरणा के लिए दूसरों के उदाहरण प्रस्तुत कर घर के बड़े बूढ़ों द्वारा लक्ष्य की पूर्ति करना प्राचीन काल की प्रचलित प्रथा है, जो किसी न किसी रूप में अबाध रूप से चली आ रही है। इसी उदाहरण प्रथा को साहित्यिक अपनी प्रतिभा से लिपिबद्ध कर कहानी अथवा लोक कथा के साँचे में ढाल देता है। यही लोक कथाएं, लोक गीतों की तरह, तद्देशीय समाज की स्थिति, भाषा, वेश-भूषा आदि सम्पूर्ण वातावरण से अवगत करा देती हैं। विश्व की लोक कथाओं का मूल भारत को ही विद्वानों ने माना है। ग्रिम बन्धुओं ने इन कथाओं को प्राचीन पौराणिक कथाओं की टूटी शृंखला कहा है, जो कि वर्णन, शैली आदि की समानता होने से सत्य ही है।

(1) यद्यपि लोक कथाओं का प्रचलन पूर्व काल से ही था फिर भी ग्रिम बन्धुओं ने जो संसार प्रसिद्ध लोक कथा संग्रह "हाउस होल्ड टेल्स" लिखा वह अद्वितीय तथा अपूर्व था। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक ग्रिम की ही लोक-कथाओं का संग्रह है। इसकी कथावस्तु मनोरंजक तो है ही, साथ ही इन कथाओं के प्रिय पात्र साधारण जीव होने से पाठक के मन में "सर्वभूत हितरेताः" की प्रवृत्ति उत्पन्न हो जाती है। कथाओं के पात्र बाधा होने पर भी अबाध गति से

उद्देश्य सिद्धि के लिए प्रयत्नशील रहते हैं। पात्रों के चरित्र चित्रण सुन्दर बन पड़े हैं। बुद्धि, चातुर्य, प्रेम, सदाचार आदि के प्रसंग, मनोरंजन के साथ-साथ, पाठकों के मस्तिष्क को शुद्ध तथा स्वस्थ विचारों से परिपूर्ण कर देते हैं। कहानियों की शैली सुन्दर, सरल तथा आकर्षक है, जो उद्देश्य सिद्धि में सहायक सिद्ध होती है।

(2) संसार प्रसिद्ध लोक कथा संग्रह “हाउस होल्ड टेल्स” के लेखक ग्रिम के पश्चात् हैन्स एण्डरसन का नाम अधिक महत्व रखता है। एक निर्धन घराने के चर्मकार के पुत्र होने पर भी आप लोक कथा लेखन प्रतिभा के धनी थे। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक इसका प्रमाण है। ये कथाएं ग्रिम की कथाओं से किसी प्रकार कम महत्व नहीं रखतीं। इन कथाओं के पात्र परियों से लेकर, पशु-पक्षी, कीट, पतंग आदि तक हैं जो मनुष्य की तरह सत्य को छिपाने में असमर्थ हैं, अतः उनका चरित्र भी स्वाभाविक सा हो गया है। शैली बड़ी सुन्दर, सरल तथा प्रभावशाली है। पाठक ऊबता नहीं अपितु उसकी उत्सुकता बढ़ती ही जाती है जब तक कि कहानी समाप्त नहीं होती। संक्षिप्त में, ये कथाएं अपने ढंग की निराली तथा प्रभावोत्पादक है।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तकों की कहानियां स्वयं ही उस स्वादिष्ट पेय के समान हैं जिसे बालक मनोरंजन में ही पान कर स्वस्थ बन जाते हैं, फिर भी डा० विष्णुस्वरूप की कुशल लेखनी ने सरल, सुबोध तथा प्रवाहमयी भाषा में जो अनुवाद किया है उसने इस पेय को और भी सौन्दर्य माधुर्यादि गुणों से पूरित कर दिया है। चित्रकार कांजिलाल की तूलिका का भी रुचिकर प्रयोग हुआ है। ये पुस्तकें राष्ट्र भाषा हिन्दी की वृद्धि के साथ-साथ बाल साहित्य में भी एक विशेषता उत्पन्न करेंगीं तथा पाठकों को मनोरंजन के अतिरिक्त विशेष-विशेष प्रसंगों से मानसिक स्वस्थता भी प्राप्त होगी, ऐसी आशा है।

द्वारका प्रसाद

मैला आंचल (फणीश्वरनाथ ‘रेणु’); डार से बिछुड़ी (कृष्णा सोबती); सुहाग के नूपुर (अमृतलाल नागर); वह फिर नहीं आई (भगवती चरण वर्मा); पांच लम्बी कहानियां; मन पसन्द भोजन (शकुन्तला देवी); विवाह और प्रेम (मेरी स्टोप्स, अनु० शिवदान सिंह चौहान)। गर्भवती की देखभाल; प्रकाशक राजकमल प्रकाशन, दिल्ली 1960

हिन्दी में ‘पाकेट बुक्स’ के प्रकाशित करने का प्रथम प्रयास सम्भवतः राजकमल प्रकाशन ने ही किया था पर किन्हीं कारणों से यह प्रथम सेट काफी देर में प्रकाशित हो पाया है। उनसे प्रथम ही राजपाल एण्ड सन्ज ने ‘हिन्दी ‘पाकेट बुक्स प्रा० लि०’ की स्थापना कर अब तक लगभग २५ पुस्तकें प्रकाशित की हैं और मै० नारायण दत्त सहगल ने भी ‘अशोक पाकेट बुक्स’ के अन्तर्गत २० पुस्तकें अभी तक प्रकाशित की हैं। कहना न होगा कि इन पुस्तकों का हिन्दी भाषा-भाषियों ने काफी स्वागत किया और यह पुस्तकें थोड़े ही समय में लोकप्रिय हो गईं।

प्रस्तुत कड़ी में राजकमल द्वारा प्रकाशित बहुचर्चित उपन्यास “मैला आंचल” संक्षिप्त रूप में प्रस्तुत किया गया है। इस उपन्यास को लेकर हिन्दी कथा साहित्य में काफी कुछ कहा जा चुका है। वर्तमान संस्करण के द्वारा यह कम मूल्य पर जन-सुलभ हो गया है। अमृतलाल नागर ने ‘सुहाग के नूपुर’ में ऐतिहासिक पृष्ठभूमि पर एक सुन्दर उपन्यास प्रस्तुत किया है। ‘डार से बिछुड़ी’ कृष्णा सोबती की नवीन सामाजिक कृति है। ‘वह फिर नहीं आई’ भगवती चरण वर्मा का नवीन रोचक उपन्यास है। ‘पांच लम्बी कहानियां’ मोहन राकेश की पसंद की कहानियों का संग्रह है। ये कहानियां पहले ही काफी लोकप्रिय हो चुकी हैं। “मन पसन्द भोजन” गृहणियों के लिये एक वरदान सिद्ध होगी। ‘विवाह और प्रेम’ मेरी स्टोप्स की लोकप्रिय पुस्तक का अविकल अनुवाद है, और ‘गर्भवती की देख-भाल’ स्त्रियों के लिए एक बहुमूल्य पथ-प्रदर्शिका है।

इन पुस्तकों का प्रकाशन सुन्दर है, छपाई साफ है, पर प्रूफ की अशुद्धियां बहुत खटकती हैं। आशा है कि अगले प्रकाशनों में यह सुधार ली जावेगी।

पुष्पा सिंह

देवदास (शरतचन्द्र); अधूरा स्वप्न (अनन्त गोपाल शेवड़े); बर्फ का दर्द (उपेन्द्रनाथ अदक); एक गधे की आत्मकथा (किशनचन्दर); हस्तरेखाएं (प्रकाश दीक्षित); प्रकाशक हिंदू पाकेट बुक्स प्रा० लि०, दिल्ली; मूल्य १.०० प्रत्येक

हिन्दी में पाकेट बुक्स के जन्मदाता हैं राजपाल एण्ड संज, जिन्होंने हिन्दी पाकेट बुक्स (प्रा०) लि० की स्थापना की। हिन्दी भाषा में सरस कथा साहित्य जन सुलभ नहीं था। अधिकतर कहानी संग्रह या लघु-उपन्यास इतने महंगे होते थे कि जन-साधारण के लिये उन्हें खरीद सकना असम्भव ही होता था। इसके विपरीत अंग्रेजी में सस्ते मूल्य पर कथा साहित्य उपलब्ध था, इसी कारण हिन्दी भाषा-भाषी, जो अंग्रेजी से भी परिचित होते थे, न चाहते हुए भी इन कम मूल्य की पुस्तकों को सरल मनोरंजन के हेतु खरीदते थे। अब जब से हिन्दी के कथा-क्षेत्र में इन पाकेट

बुक्स का जन्म हुआ है जन-साधारण की कथा-साहित्य में रुचि बढ़ती जा रही है। इसका प्रत्यक्ष प्रमाण है इन पुस्तकों की पर्याप्त बिक्री।

'हिन्दी पाकेट बुक्स' अब तक लगभग ३० पुस्तकें प्रकाशित कर चुका है। इसमें उपन्यास भी हैं, जिनके लेखक तरुण उपन्यासकार हैं, तथा पुराने कलासिक्स भी लघु-रूप में प्रकाशित किये गये हैं। वर्तमान सीरीज में प्रकाशक ने शरतचन्द्र की विख्यात कृति 'देवदास' प्रस्तुत की है, 'अधूरा स्वप्न' अनन्त गोपाल शेवड़े का एक सुन्दर नवीनतम उपन्यास है, 'बर्फ का दर्द' में 'अश्व' ने एक चुटीला व्यंग्य उपस्थित किया है जिसकी चोट से पाठक अवश्य ही तिलमिला उठेंगे। 'एक गधे की आत्मकथा' द्वारा किशनचन्दर ने आज के विषम जीवन पर करारी चोट की है। 'हस्त रेखाएं' इस कठिन विषय पर एक सरल, सुबोध पुस्तिका है, जो इस विषय में रुचि रखने वाले प्रारम्भिक पाठकों के लिये उपयोगी सिद्ध होगी।

इन पुस्तकों का मूल्य साधारण है, आकार भी अधिक छोटा नहीं। गेटअप आकर्षक है पर प्रूफ की अशुद्धियां काफी हैं। इन का सुधार हो जाने पर यह कमी भी पूरी हो सकेगी।

स० वर्मा

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Editor's Note

University Education, the knotty issues of which call for constant re-examination and fresh thinking, is the theme round which the articles in this issue revolve. Attention has been focussed on the question of the overall reform that Indian Universities require today, on Examinations and, what is uppermost in our minds at present, the introduction of Compulsory National Service for our students. Two Vice-Chancellors and a Dean share their views with us on these topics. Of interest is A. A. A. Fyzee's contribution "Reform in Indian Universities" which we reprint here under our scheme of Educational Features Service. John Holloway writes on "Teaching Honours English at Indo-Pakistan Universities", a contribution of considerable significance to our teachers of English who would have no two opinions on the writer's point that questions that lent themselves to prepared answers by the students should give place to those that would encourage the students to *think* about their texts as literary wholes. Then we have Sumitra Bhargava and Sharda Devi giving an account of education in Canada and the United Kingdom respectively. Ziauddin Alavi analyses the value of discussion method as against the lecture method, while the value of a post-vacation examination over the pre-vacation one has been emphasized by Asim Bhardan. B.D. Laroia takes up for consideration the type of science teaching that should be imparted in our educational institutions. In addition, we have a symposium on Student Indiscipline which, we all hope, will become a thing of the past and no more a subject for discussion.

Reform in Indian Universities

THE AIMS OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION have often been discussed by eminent authors since the days of Cardinal Newman. Broadly speaking, there are four main objects: (a) to cultivate and improve the minds of the young; (b) to build up their character; (c) to fit them to serve their country; and (d) to create a centre of research and higher learning in an atmosphere of freedom. A university is not a technical school; it does not manufacture civil servants or mechanics or professional men. But it does give a certain training and balance to the intellect; it fills the minds of the students with an adequate bundle of facts, and trains them to understand their significance and arrive at proper judgements. A university also attempts, systematically and with a consciousness of its duty, to build up the character of the students. And all over India today university men are conscious that in so far as discipline cannot be maintained, the universities have failed in one of their primary functions. It cannot too often be emphasized that if university students do not behave themselves, the fault lies with the universities and whatever the contributory causes, it is the universities that will have to find the remedies.

Variety of Causes

The weakness of our universities is due to a variety of causes. First, there are enormous numbers of university students for whom the proper facilities of teaching, guidance and research are not available. Secondly, language constitutes and will continue to constitute a formidable barrier. Our knowledge of English is poor and to that extent we are not in a position to use this potent instrument for the critical appraisal of subjects. Thirdly, there is on the national scale a lack of coordination regarding universities. Each State is free to go its own way and the Centre cannot enforce rigidly a particular policy. Admitting that this is perhaps the lesser of two evils it is a source of great weakness at the present stage of national development. A notable example is the position of Hindi; another is

the three-year degree course. Each university has a different programme, and we can only hope that in such diversity there are not the germs of ultimate chaos.

Now-a-days it has become the fashion to decry university education. Every one seems to know the defects, but no one has suggested the one sovereign remedy for all our ills. Criticism of this character is so widespread that it is worthwhile to examine the question broadly and to discover the principal reforms which should be introduced in Indian universities. Is the position really so hopeless? Perhaps it is necessary to add the caution that a general sense of panic is the one thing to be avoided.

For an analysis of this problem we shall begin with 1947. As India gained independence, there was a widespread belief that in *swaraj* we had acquired the magic wand and that all our fond dreams would come true. But educationists and their critics soon realized that criticism was easier than reform; that the unerring instinct to introduce the proper remedies for our weaknesses was very uncommon and that therefore reform was a painfully slow business, fraught with enormous difficulties.

Growing Numbers

The very first difficulty, and the one with which I shall begin, was the problem created by growing numbers. At each stage, primary and secondary and higher, demand has outstripped supply, and almost everywhere we hear complaints of shortage of teachers, shortage of accommodation and shortage of funds. The latter two, important as they are, cannot be compared with the most unyielding problem of shortage of teachers. You can manage with smaller funds; you can teach in ramshackle houses, not satisfactorily, indeed, but somehow. But when you are faced with shortage of teachers, and there is no remedy at hand, then matters come to a stand-still.

The long-term remedy for shortage of teachers is undoubtedly to improve the prospects of university teachers and to train them, and also to see that provision is

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made for technical schools and colleges which would absorb a certain proportion of the school population. Canalization of students in the different technological spheres useful to the nation is one of the most important tasks awaiting educationists and planners, and this will also tend to decrease pressure upon the universities. The immediate remedies, however, are drastic but require courage. First, not to admit more than such numbers as can really be taught. This is a primary requirement of sound education. It is generally recommended that in colleges not more than sixty students should be admitted to a class. Even this is too large a number. In times of stress the number may be increased to 80, but beyond that we must realize that class work in the normal sense is not possible, and the quality of instruction imparted cannot be satisfactory. It is no use having classes of 100 or over and deceive ourselves that this is university instruction.

Tutorial Work

With larger classes some kind of tutorial work becomes imperative, for there are a number of academic problems that can only be discussed with the student across the table, and as far as it is humanly possible, such opportunities should be afforded to the student. Discussion of individual problems, criticism of essays and papers, reviews of books or articles—this is the most important part of education, and a student gains an individual insight into the subject when he has the opportunity to discuss it either with an experienced teacher or even a tutor, who is well-read and has kept abreast with the current work on the topic. There can be no doubt whatever that while the problems of number have no easy solution, if we can bring student and teacher more together, we shall be able to see the beginnings of a solution. The solution proposed is that if it is impossible to have a larger number of regular teachers, such as professors, readers and lecturers, at least let us have tutors or fellows who are senior graduates and who will be able to discuss particular topics with the students.

In all universities the magic touch of the great teacher is one of the most inspiring

experiences for the student. With increase in numbers, instead of a real, live and stimulating lecture, we have nothing but a factory manufactured discourse catering for the needs of the multitude in a mechanical fashion. Or else, notes are dictated, which are repeated from year to year, conveying little to the student, and not reflecting the intellectual temper of the teacher. My first proposal is that we should try to introduce the tutorial system immediately wherever large classes are held. Even if senior teachers are not available, fellows and tutors may well undertake this work.

Discipline

Discipline is the next question that must be dealt with. Here we have a matter of fundamental importance, for the desire to play truant and break laws is ingrained in man. Indiscipline has become the order of the day in a number of universities in India. The matter is causing anxiety to all educationists, and Professor Humayun Kabir has dealt with the problem in his *Letters on Discipline*. These letters constitute a major contribution to the subject of educational reform in India.

He rightly observes that the problem should be dealt with at the secondary stage, and around the problem of discipline he has given us a critical analysis of the reforms needed in our schools and colleges. Among his most important proposals are that the management of schools should be improved in the manner indicated by him; that the administration of universities should be remodelled and that our examination system should be reshaped. The final examination is unduly emphasised in most of our schools and colleges. Regular work during the year is therefore neglected, unfair practices are sometimes adopted and cramming becomes a matter of habit. For this the reforms suggested are:—

1. Reducing the number of formal examinations.
2. Reserving marks for class work and regular application.

3. Introducing a system of weekly or monthly tests of an informal and healthy character, and,
4. Removing the subjective element in examinations.

Some of these reforms have already been adopted by our universities, but it cannot be sufficiently emphasized that the secret of discipline is a well-contented mind. If the boy is satisfied with his work, if his leisure is well employed, and if he has love for his teachers, his school or college, acts of indiscipline would be rare. We often raise our hands in horror at the acts of hooliganism committed, but unless we look for the deeper cause of the malaise, the real remedy will not be found. Unless we can establish a personal bond between teacher and student, and student and school, indiscipline cannot be avoided. If a boy loves his teacher, he will never raise his hand against him, and he will obey him at any cost. Similarly, if he loves his school, college or university, he will not indulge in acts of destruction or indiscipline. Every activity therefore which can be introduced to bring student and teacher together should be encouraged. The tutorial system, games and sports, debating societies, small study groups, cultivation of hobbies, these are the real defences against indiscipline.

There are of course many causes that lead to indiscipline such as frustration in university activities, unhealthy activities by politicians and economic anxiety. It is difficult to discuss them all here, but if we can instil love and understanding in the heart of the student, we shall have gone a long way towards solving the problem.

Training Facilities

The next problem which I propose to discuss is the selection and training of professors and teachers in the University. We shall assume that the teachers are paid on the University Grants Commission's scale, and have been selected by expert committees in an objective manner, free from personal, communal or parochial prejudices, and their terms are fixed in accordance with the all-India scales approved

by the Commission. But are the junior teachers in a university fit to teach the classes without any training or experience? In the case of secondary schools we insist on trained teachers, but where universities are concerned, we let loose a young and brilliant graduate in a class of eighty or a hundred students, without any preliminary training. How to deal with large classes; how and where to begin; how to prepare adequately for the lectures; what is the value of dictating notes? These are questions which in my view could be dealt with better if some kind of training facilities are provided for the younger teachers. One solution would be to appoint a young lecturer on probation and compel him to attend during his spare time a brief course of instruction by an eminent and preferably retired educationist who would give him the benefit of his experience. It is clear that each subject lends itself to a particular method of teaching. Mathematics cannot be taught in the same manner as literature; nor can geology be dealt with in the same way as law. The particular subject has to be taught in a manner appropriate to its content, and yet there are certain broad principles which can be taught and learnt. India is a country where a very large number of university teachers are needed and it is for consideration whether some training should not be provided for them. Apart from individual reading and training in a particular subject, I would recommend three classes of lectures: (1) General principles of university teaching; (2) The preparation of lectures and methods of instruction; (3) How to deal with students.

At the risk of being dubbed quixotic, I feel that an attempt should be made to give the younger lecturers the benefit of the experience of eminent teachers. This experiment, even if it fails, is well worth a trial and its introduction in a few universities and colleges may lead to interesting results. The young lecturer should be induced to read a good deal on the teaching of his own subject; he should also study some broad principles of the theory of instruction in general and he should be given an opportunity to come in contact with the mind and

personality of a great teacher and benefit by his experience. Whatever may be the practice in other countries, we cannot afford to allow our university students being taught by lecturers who suffer from inexperience and ignorance of the principles of teaching.

Exchange of Professors and Students

The fourth suggestion I would make is regarding the exchange of professors and students. This applies more in the case of students than in the case of teachers. In German universities, particularly in the case of Ph. D. students, it is extremely easy for a student of one university to migrate for a time to another university and do some work under another professor. Let us suppose there is a student working under a professor on a certain subject in the M.A. class of a certain university, and the professor is convinced that there is another university where the student can profitably spend a year under another teacher. Facilities of this kind should be provided by the universities, and rules and regulations should not impede the intellectual progress of the student. Often there is the financial difficulty; a student in one university can hardly afford to go to another. In such cases, every effort must be made by the provision of stipends and scholarships to enable him to lead a fuller intellectual life and some under the influence of another first-rate mind. This I consider to be one of the most needed reforms in our universities. I remember some years ago the Rotary Club of Bombay offered a studentship to an Indian student for spending a year in an American university. Apart from other difficulties, such as those of syllabus, studies and examinations, it was found that in India the majority of universities did not allow an M.A. student to pursue his studies for some time at another university. The M.A. course is generally of two years' duration; no student was permitted to work at another university, say, for the first year, come back for the second year, and take his examination after the completion of his academic term.

Apart from students, attention must also be given to the exchange of professors. In most universities today the teaching work is so heavy, that, after a few years, lecturers

and readers would welcome a sabbatical year of rest and study, during which they could do refresher courses. As most colleges and universities are unable to afford their teachers the luxury of a sabbatical year, I suggest that an alternative scheme be formulated, whereby professors in a certain university could be exchanged with their counterparts in other parts of the country. This can be done most usefully in subjects like Economics. To take an example, the Delhi and Bombay Universities have well established schools in the subject. It may be an advantage to exchange lecturers or readers on the same topic of specialization. Thus the students of one university will gain by coming in contact with a fresh teacher, and the teacher himself may like to work for a period under a professor who is a specialist in his chosen field.

Although not so favourable to the teacher as the 'Sabbatical' year, this system would relieve the monotony of lecturing on the same syllabus to the same classes in the same atmosphere. The change may bring back to life a spark which may lead to fresh thought and an original approach to old problems. The financial problem could be solved by providing that each university should pay its own teacher as if he were doing his normal duty.

Co-curricular Activities

The fifth suggestion relates to co-curricular activities. A number of universities realize the importance of debates, dramatics, musical clubs and athletics; but attention is not given to art as such. I think the time has come to give students the chance to do painting, classical music and the plastic arts. Apart from the regular university courses in these subjects (if any), provision for developing one of the arts as a hobby should also be made. Our life in the modern world tends to become monotonous in the extreme; we have no time for the appreciation of beauty and art and for self-expression. If a university arts club could be promoted, it would greatly help students to develop their in-born talents, and they might begin to express themselves joyfully in song, dance, painting and sculpture.

The problem of hobbies is intimately connected with that of leisure, and the proper use of leisure is one of the important arts of life. No one can be said to lead a full and balanced life until he has found the secret of employing his leisure usefully and joyfully. A university student is apt to forget that there are other things to do than cram his textbooks; a student far away from his home in a residential university may also have a sense of loneliness gnawing at his heart. It is therefore necessary to offer him a wide variety of hobbies to rest

his mind and give him that mental health which is so necessary for university life. Some students have an excess of animal vigour and may like to play games; others may want to express their inner emotions through art and music; poetry and drama; some others may want to play about in a mechanical workshop or do carpentry or indulge in a manual craft like book-binding. It is up to the university authorities to give these students the widest opportunities in this respect.

DO YOU KNOW?

- The population of university students in India has been increasing at the rate of 50,000 a year.
- The Lucknow University Court has adopted a resolution seeking to exempt from payment of tuition fees the sons and daughters of university employees and teaching staff of associated colleges drawing a monthly salary of less than Rs. 500.
- There were 3,772 Indian students in the United States during the school year 1959-60, forming the third largest body (7.8 per cent) of all foreign students in U.S. schools.
- The Government of India have established a Kendriya Hindi Shikshaka Mahavidyalaya at Agra to promote the study of advanced Hindi literature and comparative philology of different Indian languages and to provide facilities for training Hindi teachers and research in Hindi teaching.

Teaching Honours English at Indo-Pakistan Universities

Introduction

SINCE MY VISIT to Ceylonese, Indian and Pakistani universities, October-December 1958, I have received requests for some kind of written document making suggestions about possible syllabuses, and indeed commenting more generally on the teaching of Honours English students in the sub-continent. In drawing up the notes which follow, I am assuming that no one on the spot (most particularly the Indian and Pakistani teachers who welcomed me so generously to their departments) will think that I have forgotten how a full and detailed understanding of local conditions is essential for drawing up anything like a definitive programme of work. What follows are the observations of one who is setting the experience of a visit to the sub-continent against teaching experience in several British universities; and it has been put together with the idea that those on the spot may wish to turn these ideas over in their minds, and utilise them or reject them as they see fit. The notes are based on a study of syllabuses and examination papers in a number of different universities (as well of course as upon my own teaching work in these places and contacts with staff and students) and is not written with any one university particularly in mind.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES, AND SOME APPLICATIONS OF THEM

(a) Presentation of Models of English Prose

My experience was, that the general standard of knowledge of English among Honours students was good; but I think that any sub-continent English Honours syllabus ought to keep before itself the fact that the students are grappling with a language which few of them, probably, actually employ for all their own private written purposes, and one furthermore in which their reading at any level (newspapers, private letters, books on their spare-time interests, etc.)

is likely to be limited and also unreliable as regards the language. It is therefore important to ensure that the syllabus steadily presents students, at all levels, with the very best specimens of English *prose*: not simply in fiction, but in the kind of prose — 'prose of thought' — which they will doubtless write and speak themselves later on. Conversely, wherever it is at all reasonable to do so, prose which is odd, eccentric, idiosyncratic, and all in all a bad model for the student should be omitted from the syllabus. The upshot would be that, simply in the course of their literary studies, students would gain a firm grasp, for purposes of their own writing, of the best that has been written in English prose. This is something which is an intrinsic part of mastering the use of the English language; but at the same time, it is part of literary studies, and I think that there is no 'language class' substitute for it. No English Teacher can write (which in part means think) like the masters of our prose; and therefore none can hope to teach what their books cannot but teach. To say this is not of course to ignore the value of the language class; but to indicate how one part of the value of literary studies is that they make a distinctive and irreplaceable contribution to language training.

Clearly, early seventeenth century prose is not, in any straight-forward sense, a good model for today; but it would be wrong to apply the principle at present being put forward so rigidly as to exclude all early prose whatsoever, and students would not naturally go so far back in looking for models for their own writing. The more recent authors whom I would above all exclude from lists of prescribed books, are four comparative favourites in syllabuses at present, Sterne, Lamb, Carlyle, Meredith. These are all authors whom I myself, to a greater or lesser extent, admire. I encourage at least my abler students in Britain to read them (though it is very noticeable that almost none of them want to). But I do not think them right for the sub-continent. English literature offers great wealth, and instead of these authors (good as they are in their eccentric way)

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there are always other available writers just as good from a literary point of view, but with the advantage of supplying the student (whether he focuses his mind on this or not) with a model of style which it will be good, and not bad, for him to follow.

I mean by good prose of the kind which the ordinary man or woman needs to command, prose which is plain and direct, vigorous and idiomatic, and above all, free (or as free as it can be) from the abstractions and circumlocutions with which today we native users of English so readily clutter our language; talking about 'the availability of supplies in relation to demand' and such. The authors who seem to me the masters of this style are: Bunyan, Dryden, Swift, Defoe, Cobbett, Newman, Arnold, and in a few of his essays, T.S. Eliot. One would have to select from this list of course; and in doing so would take a number of other factors into account. Several of these names will appear later in this document in other contexts. The point here is, that this kind of writing should have a fairly prominent place in the syllabus at all stages. It should have what in a syllabus for a university in Britain would be a disproportionately prominent place. In particular, if it is desired to impose really detailed textual study leading up to context questions, etc. this is the kind of writing which should whenever possible be used for that purpose.

(b) Avoiding specially difficult texts and choosing texts which would have a specially direct appeal

There are a number of important works in our literature which do not reveal their full interest save to those who have quite a deal of background knowledge. By this I do not mean knowledge of the period when they were written; the need for knowledge of this kind is something which might argue in favour of a book. I mean a knowledge of remote western history (Greek and Roman, or medieval history, say), or mythology, or comparatively obscure literary or other conventions, or earlier literary works. Thus, Shakespeare's *History* plays are often among the less suitable of his works, because a good understanding

of them requires some knowledge both of sixteenth century, and of fourteenth-fifteenth century English or French political history. His Roman plays create similar difficulties. English under-graduates still have some rough-and-ready knowledge of western classical history which helps them with this: but sub-continent students must acquire it laboriously or leave the work rather hanging in the air. Chaucer's *Troilus and Cressida* is less suitable than some of his other works, because in it Chaucer is quite elaborately guying some complicated social and literary conventions of his own time (or recent past), and if one does not familiarise oneself with these, parts of the poem will seem arbitrary or even a little silly. Dryden's *All for Love* very much demands familiarity with Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*, of which it is almost a rewriting. Marlowe's *Doctor Faustus* and Milton's *Paradise Lost* of course demand familiarity with some basic ideas of Christianity but it could be said that some notion of these was so important for the student of English that that made a reason the more for selecting them. Some of the best poems of Keats and Shelley, however, (*Hyperion* and *Adonais* come to mind) require so much knowledge of western classical mythology, if they are not to bewilder, that they are best avoided by all save the most senior students. The same is true for both classical and medieval learning—of Spenser's *Faerie Queen*, unless read in a carefully prepared selection.

Of course, if the above are not studied, or studied only by the senior students, a price is paid: they are among our finest works. My view is based on the conviction that when students can really master a work and make it their own, it can truly enlarge and delight the mind; but when it is only glimpsed within a mass of what is remote and bewildering, it remains dull and unreal, associated chiefly with 'swotting' and examination passing. I ought to add that I think Spenser and Shelley too hard for many of my students at Cambridge to grasp effectively.

On the other hand, I think there may be some works of English literature which would not, (though of great intrinsic merit) seem

very obvious as prescribed books; but with which sub-continent students could, for one reason or another, make unexpectedly quick and real contact. I am of course drawing on limited knowledge in giving examples, but I hope that even if the examples seem inconclusive, the idea of such texts will itself be carefully considered by those who could perhaps locate examples better than I.

(i) Dorothy Osborne's *Letters*.

On any terms, these are a minor seventeenth century classic, written in somewhat archaic but most beautifully supple, terse and genuine English. What strikes me as making the work specially suitable, however, is that the letters are letters written by a dutiful girl, to a good man who is a good and obedient son: the two are in love, but each readily admits that their personal desires are subordinate to the wishes of kinsmen and family. Is this not a situation which students in Britain have to feel their way into slowly, depending on a good historical sense; but where sub-continent students would start with a positive advantage—it would strike a chord for most of them at once?

(ii) Defoe's *Tour* and more particularly Cobbett's *Rural Rides*.

Both of these but especially the second are fine models of prose, from the early eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries respectively. But I mention Defoe here chiefly as a companion piece to Cobbett. *Rural Rides* gives an excellent picture of English life, both rural and manufacturing, in many parts of the country; and why I think that he would have a specially direct appeal, is that Cobbett has so vigorous a sense of agriculture when it is thriving and when it is in decay, and of the way that agriculture, industry and politics, come together over a whole region. Both these works, of course, are long; students would study a fairly short section only.

(iii) Crabbe's verse.

Crabbe is not of our great poets, but over the last generation of criticism his position has arisen steadily, for the honesty and intelligence of his writing, and for his penetrating and realistic picture of English eighteenth century life both in the countryside and in the town. I believe that sections of Crabbe's *Village* and *Borough* would very readily strike a chord, especially among the students who came from the more modest homes. They would find Crabbe portraying, in great detail, a life which in some ways was unexpectedly like their own at home. Certainly I noticed some thing of this when, as a lecturer at a Scottish university, I had many students from rural areas.

(c) The literary work as an insight into a past period of history and general culture

I suppose it is generally recognised that some literary works are remarkable in part because of how they offer insight into the essential history, social, cultural or general, of their period. Moreover, it must be an important part of at least the better sub-continent student's work in English literature, that it should lead him forward to some general notion of the basic factors in English civilisation at various times in the past. But there are difficulties. Certain works which are good for this purpose are too minor to warrant study by the student, and others pay these dividends amply, but only if a lot of general and background knowledge is also brought to bear on them. Still, some suggestions can be made. Thus, sub-continent students can be expected only to read a strictly limited amount of English medieval literature, and they should probably give all their time to what is so easily the best of it—Chaucer. But in choosing from his works, one important factor is surely that the *Prolog* to the *Canterbury Tales* offers an unrivalled panorama of medieval society, and the *Pardoner's Tale* a less obvious, but equally powerful, insight into

what might loosely be called 'the medieval mind'. For Elizabethan times, Shakespeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream* or *Henry IV, Part II*, and Spenser's *Epithalamium*, could be used; though to bring out their full interest from this angle would need skilful teaching. In the seventeenth century it seems of high importance that students should get some idea of the decisive political issues of the time, and also of what, in the broadest sense, Nonconformity has meant as a continuing force in English cultural history. For the first, Milton's *Areopagitica* seems to be irreplaceable and moreover, this is a work which surely strikes home to men's practical interests today. But the picture is greatly added to by study of a much less well-known masterpiece like Halifax's *Character of a Trimmer*; short, superb as a model of prose, and making; with the *Areopagitica* and Locke's first *Letter on Toleration*, a kind of resume of the great seventeenth century movements in government. For Puritanism, Bunyan's work is the obvious choice; and his prose could not be bettered as a model.

Eighteenth century England can be approached through Pope's *Rape of the Lock* (provided, of course, that the author's own point of view, and all in his time that it stands for, is added in with the picture of life that he draws in his poem). Goldsmith's *Citizen of the World* essays, in the middle of the century, could serve the same purpose, and have the advantages of a certain limited Eastern interest, and of being easy enough for comparatively junior students. Horace Walpole's *Letters* (like Evelyn's *Diary* of the later seventeenth century), offer a good background picture of the life and interests of 'polite society' in the period, and of taste in the arts and attitudes to them. Both these works are used for the purpose of supplying a background picture to students in some British universities. On the other hand, there is a certain elegant superficiality in Walpole's letters, and I would not recommend them save in a fairly short selection for students who were doing work in some detail on the period. It is above all to Jane Austen that one should turn for insight into British life and culture in the later eighteenth

century: Her novels show both the elegance, and the earnestness, of that time, and show these in a unity; while the comparative shortness of her books, their immediate interest as fiction, and her admirable style, combine with this to make her an author who deserves notable attention.

The task of making contact with the nineteenth century as a period of British civilisation is made easier by the existence of a large body of good fiction; but it is a question, of course, of choosing individual books. Several things are relevant to this. How much a book illuminates the period has to be balanced against its length, its difficulty, and the degree to which it will strike a chord in the sub-continent student's own experience. Hardy's *Return of the Native*, for example, seems the most useful of his books in this context, because its central issue is the predicament of educated and intellectualised people who return to the traditional society of their families. Of Dicken's works, I should be inclined to put forward *Great Expectations*, as being comparatively short, as showing the intensity of the mid-century reaction against contemporary conventional values, and as again raising the issues connected with how a modern money way of life impinges upon an old-fashioned rural integrity. Henry James's *The Awkward Age* is a fairly (not very) difficult work but very much worth consideration. It is a notable picture of late nineteenth-century English society, and again, its central issue, how true womanly modesty and goodness can survive intact in a 'modernised' age, is surely one which at least the girl students in the sub-continent would find come home to them. This novel, though short, would probably be suitable only for advanced students. But James's early work, *The Europeans*, seems almost to demand a place in any sub-continent syllabus: though it is American rather than British life of which this splendid, short and lucid work offers so outstanding an insight. Finally, I must mention Mrs. Gaskell's *North and South* and Joyce Cary's *A Fearful Joy*. The former is a mid-nineteenth century classic, though not one of the greatest novels of

the period: but it brings out, once for all, the contrast between the north and the south of England which is a basic fact about our civilisation, and also that between agriculture and industrialism in the Victorian period. Cary's *A Fearful Joy* gives the truest, deepest and most humane picture of change in English life over the last seventy years and right up to the present day which is known to me and easy enough for students. D.H. Lawrence's *The Rainbow* does something like this (though it stops sooner) and is altogether more remarkable as a work of art; I doubt that any student would find any part of it embarrassing, but it is certainly a quite difficult work, and that it is so outstanding a panorama of British life entering the modern world does not immediately transpire.

These, then, are the works which come prominently to mind, if one is thinking of how to provide, through the study of English literature, a real and vivid apprehension of English life and civilization at various stages of its history.

(d) Changing literary taste and the stress on 'reality' and everydayness

Speaking in very broad terms, one could say that in most periods of English literature work (especially poetry) of two contrasting kinds has been produced. At one extreme, what is 'poetic', 'literary' and beautiful in a straight forward sense: and at the other, what is down to earth, vigorous, homely. Over the past generation in Britain, there has been a very marked shift of interest from the first of these to the second. In fact, I believe that in Britain the shift has gone too far: but in the sub-continent, on the other hand, it has in the main hardly gone far enough. I am wholly against the virtual writing off of 'Romantic' poetry, 'the nineteenth century' inverse, Milton, Spenser, and even the early Shakespeare which has occurred in some quarters. This results in nothing but a caricature of our literature. But surely the tradition of 'poetic' poetry, important as it is, remains something which the sub-continent student (dealing as he is with a language other than his mother tongue, and one in which literary genres and ideas and traditions which continue from our

western classics mean little or nothing to him), must easily find unreal and academic. Consequently, I suggest that it should be shown to him at its very best—in Spenser's *Epithalamium* and *Prothalamium*, in early Shakespeare, and early Milton, in the *Odes* of Keats, and perhaps a here and there in Chaucer if time allows—and that the other main kind of English verse, that which comes near to lively everyday conversation, narrative and discussion, should be given great prominence. What would this mean in detail? First, study of the early ballads: and this to bring out their robust strength and direct humanity, not their far away strangeness. Here is an important body of literature which is to a significant degree the literature of the people, and it is easy of access and should have a ready appeal. (Teachers would find that Pinto and Rodway, *The Common Muse* and Reeves, *The Idiom of the People*, help in teaching the early ballads, because they show the link between them and the later town street-ballads, and the rural folk-songs respectively). Second, perhaps, the view that a whole book of Spenser's *Faerie Queene* will be too heavy a dose of what is likely to seem remote and ethereal. Third, a strong stress not so much perhaps on the poetry of Donne as on other less difficult early seventeenth century poets not unlike him: Hervert, Traherne, Carew, perhaps Ben Jonson. Pope and Wordsworth seemed to me to have the prominent places they deserve from this point of view. The next point would therefore be, that (apart from Keats's *Odes*, and a handful of his sonnets) chief attention should be given to Byron's later, satirical verse, and to that great tradition of vernacular poetry which runs through the nineteenth century (obscured though this has been by some recent discussions) in Byron, Crabbe, Clough, Browning, Hopkins, and Hardy. The implications of this are that Browning should get clearly more attention than Tennyson, and that the less important 'Romantic' poets like Arnold and especially Rossetti should be ignored. If this stress is given to the study of earlier poetry, then modern English verse is led into easily, and two caricatures are avoided: one, that this modern verse is unpoetical

conundrums, and the other that it is a wonderful deliverance from 150 years of escapist nonsense.

In putting forward these views I am in no way subscribing to the writing-off of, say, Shelley or Tennyson. Very far from it. But it seems right to stress what the students can make contact with readily, and at the same time be sure to see as genuine and substantial and having to do with real life, not (even if mistakenly) flimsy and escapist. Hardy in particular, more indeed than Hopkins, whose case is more complex and whose work is much more difficult, seems an obvious choice for special attention: and there is at least one good short selection of his poetry readily available.

(e) The importance of literature as affording contact with major ideas

I noticed that several sub-continent syllabuses included papers for which the students concentrated on works of discursive prose; and this seems a very good idea, for reasons partly touched on above. But I suggested that such papers should be utilised to bring out to the student how literature is a storehouse of many of the ideas which interest him currently and practically as a citizen. Again in the interests of stressing the reality and immediacy of the subject, there is a strong case for making the 'literary essay' (Lamb, Hazlitt, etc. etc.) clearly subordinate to prose of another kind. This other kind of prose will have a style which the student should want to acquire, so far as possible, for his own purposes, and it will deal with subjects which should come home to him in their full importance and seriousness. I have already mentioned Milton's *Areopagitica* as one example of this kind of prose. Other such works are: Burke's prose—but careful selection and abridgement would be needed: Newman's *Discourses on the Scope and Nature of University Education*, J.S. Mill's *The Subjection of Woman*, and *Liberty* (I see difficulties here, but shall leave them to others); some of Arnold's essays like *The Function of Criticism*, *The Literary Influences of Academics*, *The Modern Element in Literature*, and parts (though I rather doubt, all) of *Culture and Anarchy*

Ruskin's *Unto This Last*; a number of D.H. Lawrence's essays; and among contemporaries, some essays by Bertrand Russell and T.S. Eliot. All these writers, it might be said, deal in modern prose with major problems of a modern society. That the study of literature offers this kind of reading is one of its great merits, one of the things which make it truly educative. Agreed, study of Shakespeare is more profoundly educative. But that is not the most obvious fact in the world. In this field of discursive prose, the student can be brought up against what must convince him on sight of its substance and reality, and what ought to yield a genuine dividend not only to those with a flair for literature, but to all. Hence the prominent place which it should have.

(f) Providing substantial contact above all with 'the best' in English literature

This needs to be given, as a guiding idea, neither more nor less than its true weight. Even were we to agree entirely as to what 'the best' works were, students could not work on them exclusively. Some such works are too difficult for most or even perhaps all students. In other cases, it is right to choose the minor classic rather than the major one, because it will have a specially ready appeal, or helps in a specially direct way towards a grasp of English life at the time it was written. Points of this kind have already been considered. But there should always, surely be some quite clear reason of an educational kind for choosing a comparatively minor work. No other reason will do. Some times, however, I could not quite avoid the feeling that certain authors were being studied simply because a rather relaxed, easy-going—the right word is 'old-fashioned'—judgment on someone's part had simply taken them for better than they are. This is rather a contentious point. Perhaps it is enough to say that to see Galsworthy, Maugham, Lytton Strachey—or most works by Shaw for that matter—prescribed in a British university syllabus would be a matter for surprise, and something which one would certainly expect to see drop out before very long. Behind this, though,

s the more general issue: students cannot be widely read, and so there is always a standing need that they should be got to read the very best, in all periods, rather than something short of that. Acquaintance with major masterpieces of literary art, and a grasp of how great is the stature and importance of works of that order, is absolutely an essential part of studying literature as a liberal education in the wide sense. As I have said, there are indeed sound reasons for choosing from time to time, a minor classic rather than a major one. But those reasons must be there every time, clearly formulated as the necessary support for what would be a mistake without them; and few things could be more unfortunate than to choose inferior works simply for the reason that their inferiority was not clearly seen. This is especially important in the twentieth century, where a relaxed attention can choose, not a minor classic work instead of a major one (say, Cary's *A Fearful Joy* instead of Lawrence's *The Rainbow*, which was mentioned above—might be the right decision) but more or less 'popular' novels with little or no claim to a permanent place as literature. Galsworthy and Maugham, I am bound to say, seem to me to fall into this class on the whole.

(g) The Place of 'Practical Criticism'

This is a big subject which must be no more than touched on here. I am writing from Cambridge, the home of practical criticism, but I think it must be conceded that if this kind of work is made prominent in a syllabus there can be disadvantages as well as advantages, and that a good English course might easily exist which found no place for practical criticism at least in its examinations. This being said, however, it must be added that the argument for an examination test in practical criticism is very strong. This is not to deny that the work done in the examination room is likely to be very imperfect: but the point is, that only if there is such a test can one be sure that students will, over the course of their studies, give close and concentrated attention to how words are being used in the literature they are working on, and to recognising the

local differences, word by word, between the shoddy and the first-rate. Certainly, this work may be done well or ill, and may easily degenerate into a worthless routine; but the firm invitation to do it at all is a great thing, and it is almost sure to be done ill if it is left to go by default. The upshot of this is clearly that some place should be found, in the examinations themselves, for practical criticism.

Certain further points should be made. (1) purely nominal provision is probably worse than none at all. I should think that a reasonable minimum would be (on a marks basis) a half-paper; and it would be better to give at least this much space to it in, say, the B.A., and omit it from the M.A. (or *vice-versa*), than to put a fragment of practical criticism in each examination. (2) No genuinely critical opinion can be formed of a mere scrap; if students are asked to write critical appreciations of verse extracts only five or six lines long (I noticed this once) they can usually do no more than explain the prose sense of the passage, or recognise the author, and reproduce something learnt up about his work.

Finally (3) a more substantial point. As time passes, it must be expected that fewer sub-continent students will be studying English literature with a knowledge of the language comparable to that of a native speaker; and it is quite true that there is something unreal about students, other than the best and most advanced ones, and these moreover with a certain flair for literature, attempting to write practical criticism of poetry in a foreign tongue. They are only too likely to get hold of a few dogmatic ideas and apply them as a heavy-handed routine (which is what the less good English students of English do in practical criticism most of the time). In view of this, there might be much to be said for making the main practical criticism effort in the direction not of verse but of prose; and further—especially for the more junior students—in the direction not of 'literary' prose or prose with a mainly (in some sense) aesthetic interest, but prose of the more work a day sort. When students can recognise the cliché of thought or language, when they can

distinguish cogency, lucidity and sequaciousness of argument from confusion and jumble, when they see the goodness of convincing and concrete illustrations and example, and the evil of fine sounding but vague abstraction and circumlocution, when they can distinguish the brutal crudifier from the mind which is alive to the exception and the intricacy, they have already become practical critics of no mean standing, and done so in a field where in a modern society the plain man, whatever his work, needs a trained mind. There are thus very strong grounds for suggesting that the main emphasis in practical criticism, at least with the more junior students, might be put on work with prose. This is not of course to deny that if one can be more ambitious, and produce good practical critics of poetry also, much is gained.

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES

It seems useful to sum up the points made so far. What has been suggested is that syllabuses in general should be planned so as :

- (a) To provide contact, over the duration of the course, with the best models of English prose of the kind which the students most need to have at their own command.
- (b) On the whole, to avoid texts which are especially remote from the students or difficult for them, and to bring forward texts which might have an especially direct appeal.
- (c) To cause students to see that some works of literature afford insight into a whole period of past life and culture, and to give them opportunities for studying such works.
- (d) To take account of modern changes in literary taste so as to stress the element of reality and ordinary vernacular life represented in English literature.
- (e) To show how studying literature makes contact with a range of ideas which have practical

importance in life today, and to afford opportunities of studying works of this kind.

- (f) To keep free of popular or middle-brow taste, and ensure that students of literature come to study, and recognise fully, literary masterpieces.
- (g) To take account of the genuine value of practical criticism, even if it is thought that students, or the more junior students, ought to concentrate on prose in doing this work.

ORGANISING THE SYLLABUS INTO PAPERS

This discussion, so far, has dealt with what kind of work should enter the syllabus, rather than with the way in which that work, once decided upon, should be organised into papers. This is a matter upon which a general note such as the present one can offer only a very limited degree of help; decisions depend upon the nature of the staff, on how lecture courses are to be arranged throughout the year, and on other questions which only individual Heads of Department can take properly into account, as they vary in each individual case. In fact, I have only two observations to make, one a minor one, the other perhaps less so.

I was rather struck, in a number of cases, by the fact that the account given in a university syllabus of the ground covered by this or that paper in a course looked more like a nominal than a genuine description of the work which would in fact be done. In most cases, papers looked as if they were deliberately designed to cover a limited area of ground and to do that thoroughly: which is an admirable principle. In some cases however, the syllabuses stated that students would be expected to have a 'detailed knowledge' of the work of several voluminous and difficult authors, and a general knowledge of others. Requirements of this kind turn up, of course, in British university syllabuses as well as in sub-continent ones; but there is always an overwhelming case

for someone's going carefully over a syllabus from time to time, and making sure that what is said will be done, is what can and will in fact be done. The consequences, otherwise, are likely to be a false sense of achievement on the one hand, and a certain degree of cynicism in some students on the other. This may seem a small point: I would not mention it had it not caught my attention in several different cases.

Much more important is the general question of whether to base examination papers mainly, or exclusively, upon a list of prescribed texts. It seems to be a very widespread practice in the sub-continent to do this; and if the syllabuses and the question papers themselves are compared, it appears that very often the students are invited to concentrate very closely upon a few set texts, and to study them pretty much in isolation. One reflection of this is the comparative prevalence of 'context' questions of the straight-forward kind which test the student's mechanical familiarity with a text.

The arguments for this approach are obvious: it means that students inescapably have to read and re-read the literary works which are set, and become familiar with their texts: and it precludes, in large part anyhow, the rote learning of dictated or borrowed notes. Probably there is good reason to have some such papers at all stages in sub-continent university English courses, or at least at all stages save the highest. Even so, this kind of 'set text' paper could be made more genuinely educative if context questions were constructed upon the more modern model of asking the examinee to comment (say in passages from a Shakespeare play) upon the dramatic importance of the passage he is presented with, or its contribution to the work as a whole, rather than simply to locate it and explain verbal difficulties. And I think that progress would be made if it were resolved to avoid all questions which lent themselves to routine or prepared answers, and to put the stress upon questions which encouraged students to think about their prescribed texts as literary wholes, or in the more advanced courses to think about one of them in com-

parison with another, or to consider sometimes the place which a work has in the period in which it was written. This sort of approach makes for more enjoyable and interesting teaching as well as learning, and it powerfully sorts out quality from the opposite.

Further than this, I suggest that at every stage, but especially every stage after say the first year in B.A. Hons., there should be at least *one* paper, and probably more than one, of another kind. That is to say, a paper in which to do really well, a student *had* to draw on reading which he had done, and thought about, outside the circle of the prescribed texts; and which gave him an opportunity to use any insight which he had gained into the general nature of English literature in a given period, or the ways in which literature was related, in that period, to the whole life and culture of society. The most obvious kind of paper fulfilling these requirements is one with a fairly wide choice of questions on literature over a period (anything, perhaps, from 40 to 150 years). Another possibility is a paper on literary criticism in which the questions are put in general terms,—some of the abiding fundamental issues which confront the student of literature are raised—rather than as invitations to reproduce, or even comment upon, the views of this or that particular critic. I can see that papers of this kind might worry some students at the time of their introduction: though the better students, as soon as they saw the new opportunities being opened up for them, would welcome them. If this is right, though, it might be a wise transitional move to draw up a paper which did not oblige students to read widely for themselves, or try to deal with a period as a historical whole, but which gave plentiful opportunity for this kind of work to those who wanted to avail themselves of it. The printed syllabus would then best contain not only a short list of prescribed reading, but a longer list of recommended optional further reading. It would need to be explained carefully to students, I think, that this reading was optional, particularly in the sense that still other works would also help in gaining

further insight, and general insight, into a subject or a period; and that the good student was best advised to explore intelligently for himself and try to form his own expanding perspective of the subject as he went along. A number of the books which I have recommended earlier in this note would come more suitably within this area of further reading and exploration, than as texts prescribed for close study by all.

Teaching, and learning, along these lines is exacting. But perhaps it should be added, at this point, that it is mainly here that the study of literature brings out and trains the qualities of mind which are more than those of the specialist, because they are those central to the intellectual equipment of anyone who has to shape policy, form broad views and take basic decisions; whether in commerce, industry, or administration. In other words, it is only when a university course in literature breaks through to this kind of work that it can truly stand as what it is: one of a nation's major arms for the training of those who will later take responsible or even high place in society.

SUPPLY OF BOOKS

Here is the acutest problem.

In certain universities in the sub-continent, anthologies of verse or essays were in use which seemed to have been first published up to sixty years ago. As a result, the selection they included, and the sort of work upon that selection which they proposed to student, bore no relation to what any recent graduate would see as of use or interest in teaching a class. There is a tremendous need not only for really up-to-date edition (prepared with the special needs of sub-continent students in mind), of major classics; but also for verse anthologies and prose selections, and books (suitable for comparatively junior students) which include a number of substantial extracts of the kind which helps with comparative study, insight into background, and a sense of historical period. Again, some of the points made earlier can only be effectively implemented if a good deal of work is done here.

The matter is one, ultimately, of prestige and of finance; and I should very much like to see it taken up at a higher level than that of English Departments; taken up, indeed, at the highest levels concerned with university education. This is because it needs to be recognised that the elementary edition, a completely modern one and therefore one which needs revision ever so often, and an edition moreover of what is currently thought to be the right book, is a piece of indispensable equipment, exactly on a par with the equipment that goes into the students' science laboratories. To provide such editions in adequate numbers and at a price within the students' reach may or may not require a money subsidy; but it certainly requires a pooling of ideas among several universities, and such a measure of agreement as will enable the right editors to be found and the right books to be edited in such numbers as will bring full economies of scale. As I say, there are some problems of fairly large-scale organisation here. A determined individual Head of Department could no doubt do something, but the question needs to be taken up, for full effectiveness, at a higher level.

The question of prestige, however, may be more significant than that of finance. If a new student edition is prepared, but ill prepared, not good but positive harm is done; the poor edition, just because it is new, cannot but get some year's run, and while it is on the market it keeps any possible better one off. At present, it seems rather as if the best young university teachers in the sub-continent, those therefore who realise that they can seek promotion and are ambitious for it, are obliged to turn their attention in the direction of obtaining—often under great or even disabling difficulties—a higher degree: or of building up a record of narrowly academic publications in learned journals. The new student edition is somewhat likely, I suspect, to be done (no doubt there are exceptions) by someone who does not see himself as competing at that level, or done in a hurry by someone who is hard up. The implications are obvious. But the need is for new books to be prepared by the very best of the younger university teachers; those who will bring to this work the best

intelligence and discrimination, a scholarship least cluttered with drudging pedantry, and the keenest sense of where true educational value lies. This can only come about when it is admitted in high circles (Vice-Chancellors, Appointing Committees for Chairs, etc.) that to have prepared one or two admirable student texts or anthologies is a decisive sign of the outstanding university teacher who especially deserves promotion. Ancillary to this, perhaps, would be a recognition that to spend study leave abroad on this kind of work (it could often be more easily done, because of libraries and contacts, in the U.K. or U.S.A. than in the sub-continent) is a wholly laudable thing. All in all, the question here is one of urgent national needs being seen in their true perspective as against conventional academic valuations.

THE EMPHASIS

This note has been mainly concerned with making positive suggestions for certain improvements in the university teaching of *Honours English* in the sub-continent. It has not set out to strike a balance between criticism and praise, because that is not what the writer was asked to set out to do. But I should not like to conclude it, without expressing my admiration for the work which university teachers of English seemed to me to be doing everywhere over the sub-continent, doing steadfastly and devotedly despite in some cases very real difficulties on several sides. Indeed, as an Englishman I felt genuinely grateful to see the literature of my language being treated and taught with this respect and affection. Something similar ought to be said of the keenness and interest of the students, their very conspicuous desire to learn, and in general of the very good standard which, despite difficulties, I thought had so often been reached.

SMILE AWHILE

"They tell me your son in college is quite an author. Does he write for money?"

"Yes, in every letter."



"Sedentary work," said the lecturer, "tends to lessen endurance."

"In other words," butted in the smart student, "the more one sits, the less one can stand."

"Exactly," retorted the lecturer, "and if one lies a great deal, one's standing is lost completely."

Viva Voce Tests

in

University Examination

THE SYSTEM OF ORAL EXAMINATIONS seems to be the most ancient method of assessing the progress made by an alumnus. In the early stages of human abode on this planet, primitive knowledge used to be handed down from one person to another through word of mouth, and the casket of human memory was the only possible library. A term of schooling in those days was rounded off by an oral examination. Later on, when the alphabet was invented and the volume and nature of physical facilities available to the teacher and the taught increased, the system of written examinations was introduced but oral examinations were never entirely given up. In fact, even today they continue to supplement written examinations. In this country, they are used quite extensively at the primary level; sparingly at the secondary level; and systematically at the university level where they are known as *viva voce* tests. There are, however, some countries like the Soviet Union and People's Republic of China where written examination in each paper, lasting sometimes for more than an hour or two, is only oral. It is not our intention to discuss here the merits and demerits of the written examination *vis-a-vis* the oral examination. Our purpose is to examine the *viva voce* test as complementary of the written examination at the university level.

The *viva voce* test is complementary of the written examination in the sense that it completes the assessment of a candidate's worth already made through an examination of the written scripts turned out by him. It indicates that the oral test is meant to do what the written test fails to do; and thus it completes the latter.

Differences

The nature, scope and significance of the written examinations are different from those of a *viva voce* test in vital respects. In

written papers a candidate can pick up five questions out of a usual total of ten, and he is examined in the questions which he chooses. No such choice is available to him in a *viva voce* test. His failure to reply or a bad answer creates an unfavourable impression and brings down marking. Secondly, the range of questions that can be asked in an oral test is potentially very large, and questions can be asked on practically any aspect of a subject. Thirdly, whereas a candidate in an examination hall can take his own time in thinking out an answer, making a synopsis and revision, in an oral test he has no such facility. He must answer promptly, and a *viva voce* test involves *inter alia* judgement of his promptness. Furthermore, the latter test assesses certain traits of the candidate which cannot be judged through a written test, e.g., self-confidence, self-expression, and decision-making; and even his dress, deportment and manners are watched and marked either consciously or sub-consciously. Apparently the *viva voce* test is, in scope and significance, much different from the written test. Finally, there is this vital fact that there can be no question of any secret regarding the person who is examiner in a *viva voce* test, a secret carefully maintained in our country in regard to written papers. The open character of such a test is its strength and also its danger. It is its strong point because it involves a frank and open-court assessment of a candidate's worth, so that the latter need have no fear that his work has not received careful attention at the hands of the valuer. It is its weakness because it requires moral courage on the part of the examiner to be strict and correct in marking students with whom he has formed ties of affection and friendship and who might hold him responsible in case their division is spoiled because of poor marks in *viva voce* test. A *viva voce* test involves as much an examination of the examiner as of the candidates; and none who is afraid of being fair, strict and impartial in open proceedings, even at personal cost, should accept this assignment. The lack of secrecy is the essence of a *viva voce* test, and the strong moral fibre of the examiner the basis of its success.

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Assessment of Personality

The objects of education are the development of the human mind, the culture of the student's personality, and addition to his stock of information; and the purpose of the examination system is to assess the progress and performance of the candidate in these directions. The written test is a good method of examining the stock of a candidate's knowledge, and to some extent it also examines the development of his mind. But the development of the personality of a candidate can be judged properly only through an oral test, and a really correct idea of the development of his mind can again be acquired in a similar way. The oral examination is not so much a test of the volume and depth of specialized knowledge of a candidate as of his mental sharpness, his way of approaching a problem and the method in which he attempts to solve it. In short, it seeks to examine his ability to deal with certain hypothetical or simplified situations without the aid of books. It examines what impact his studies have made on his general understanding, to what extent education has developed his mind in points of sharpness and promptness, and how far he has developed the capacity of independent thinking and judgement-making. More specifically, a *viva voce* test seeks to assess the following qualities in a candidate:

- (i) development of mind and capacity to use intelligence in solving specific issues;
- (ii) capacity to think logically;
- (iii) power of critical analysis and independent judgement;
- (iv) power of expression;
- (v) self-confidence;
- (vi) culture including dress, deportment and manners.

The first three qualities pertain directly to the candidate's mind, and they are of academic as well as general interest. The last three (namely, power of expression, confidence and culture) are of vital importance in the building of his career and in his social intercourse with his fellow-beings. The popularity of man, the pleasantness

of his personality, and his social and business success depend to a large extent on these qualities; and they can well be judged in a *viva voce* test, not in a written examination.

It is necessary to keep in mind the above facts so that the *viva voce* examination does not deteriorate into a replica of the written examination, and does not become primarily a test of the candidate's knowledge. It is relevant to ask: How far his knowledge of the special area that he has chosen should be tested in a *viva voce* test? The answer is entirely in the negative. It is theoretically possible to judge the candidate's stock of specialized knowledge through the *viva voce* examination, but then this should be somewhat superfluous as an adjunct to a written examination which does precisely the same thing. The relevance of a *viva voce* examination lies in the fact that it assesses those qualities in the candidate which are left generally untested in the written examination. As has already been observed, the written examination is a test of the stock of knowledge that a candidate has acquired, but the *viva voce* examination is a test of the mental and personality development that has taken place as a result of his education.

Knowledge as Medium of Assessment

The statement that the *viva voce* test is not a test of the candidate's specialized knowledge but of his mental and personality development, should not be taken to mean that it can be, or should be, wholly independent of this specialised knowledge. The matter is essentially one of approach. Whereas in a written examination the candidate's specialised knowledge is itself tested, in a *viva voce* test the area of specialised knowledge becomes the medium through which his mental and personality development is judged. Theoretically it is possible to promote the view that the *viva voce* test should be held in a general sort of way, without paying any heed to the specialised course chosen by the candidate. This, in fact, seems to a certain extent to be the case when a candidate is examined for recruitment by a private firm, or when he appears in an interview in connection

with a competitive examination, or even when he appears in the *viva voce* test taken as a part of B.A. Compulsory English (as against English Literature) Examination. But it is difficult to think of an oral test of some magnitude which does not have any bearing whatever on any definite branch or branches of knowledge, for in that case it will become merely a talk. It cannot be a friendly chat among equals who get together to have some pleasant time; nor can it be meant to get better acquainted with the candidate as a man. There must be some purpose of the talk; and the question is how closely that purpose is related to the candidate's studies. A future employer may like to judge a candidate's suitability for the job or the members of a Public Service Commission may like to see his general fitness for public service; and B.A. Compulsory English examiners may wish to test his capacity to speak correct and fluent English. But it is difficult to see how these purposes can be fulfilled by avoiding contact with the area of the candidate's studies. If it is completely avoided, the *viva voce* test may consist of only of a few enquiries of a personal or general nature in which case it will be of hardly any value; or it may become a sort of general knowledge test in which case it may be a poor substitute for the written papers. Therefore, the *viva voce* test shall have to use the studies of the candidate for throwing up subjects of talks and discussions, but the purpose will be to judge how far his mind and personality have developed. Relation of the *viva voce* test to the areas of knowledge covered by the candidate will also put the candidate at ease; and the examiners too will also have the facility of selecting questions or posing issues. Therefore, no *viva voce* test which is not superficial can be wholly or preponderantly general and unattached to any branch or branches of knowledge.

Marking

The marking in a *viva voce* test has to be done in a very careful and balanced manner so that each particular quality is given the importance that it deserves in the total assessment. The tendency some-

times in evidence to ignore the manner in which the candidates express themselves is to be deprecated; and also the tendency to ignore the self-confidence and personality factors. Our own valuation of the six qualities mentioned above will be somewhat as follows :

(a) Mental development and application of intelligence	40
(b) Logical thinking	10
(c) Power of analysis and judgement-making	10
(d) Expression	20
(e) Self-confidence	10
(f) Dress, manner and deportment	10
TOTAL	100

If the marking in a *viva voce* test is done in a proper and balanced manner, the results obtained may not necessarily conform to the assessment done through written papers. Since the qualities tested differ in the two cases, and since one set of qualities does not necessarily go with the other set, their assessed valuations would in all probability differ in a generality of cases. It would, indeed, be strange if the marks obtained by a candidate out of 100 in written papers are the same as the marks obtained by him out of the same total in a *viva voce* test. Sometimes there is a tendency among *viva voce* examiners to ascertain either from official records or directly from the candidates their divisions in previous examinations, or their expectations as regards division in the examination for which they are being examined, and to make this the base of *viva voce* marking. But this is wholly unscientific. It is, in fact, against the very spirit, philosophy and purpose of a *viva voce* test. It is a common experience of those who have been *viva voce* examiners for some time that good students do not necessarily do well in *viva voce* examinations, and poor students might do remarkably well.

Examiners' Task

The responsibility of the members of the *viva voce* Board is great from several points of view. In the first place, they have to develop a technique for bringing out the intrinsic worth of a candidate and his real qualities to the surface. These lie hidden underneath his personality, and it is not for him to demonstrate them. It is for the examiners to create an atmosphere in which these qualities may come to the surface easily and immediately so that they may be assessed. If the examiners make no conscious effort to draw out these qualities in the candidate but proceed to mark him either on the basis of such display as is instinctively made or on the assumption that these qualities do not exist in the candidate, this is being very unfair. The assessment must be preceded by most careful human handling. As soon as the candidate has taken his seat, examiners should put him completely at his ease so that a pleasant and friendly atmosphere is created and the candidate is made to feel at home. The test should then begin with simple questions which an average student can easily answer, and more difficult and complicated questions should follow in

a graded manner. In the second place, the examiners should carefully watch how the candidate approaches a problem and frames his answers, and not so much what his answers are, because emphasis is to be placed on the general mental development and not on stock of information.

It is well to indicate that the performance of a candidate seems to depend, *inter alia*, on the nature of questions which happen to be asked, the way in which discussions proceed, the mood of examiners and the value that they attach to their own convictions and opinions, on all of which they have some amount and control. Moreover, the marks gained in an oral examination may have considerable weight in determining the candidate's division and position on the merit list; and the need of impartiality is imperative. It requires some moral courage to be strict in an attempt to be fair while marking candidates whom you have known so well through long association and who may carry sweet or bitter memories with them on leaving the university. All this makes the task of *viva voce* examiners one of considerable delicacy, care and courage.

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National Service

by

Students

IN THE PRE-INDEPENDENCE ERA, Indian students took very great interest in the affairs of the country. As volunteers they gave immense help during public festivals and *melas*. It was a pleasant sight to see students working in batches for days together during fairs and pilgrimages, big public meetings and so on. There were times when they were prepared to sacrifice a good deal. Some of the students forswore their comforts and even their careers. It all went to show that our students could be inspired by noble ideals.

Yet, of late our students seem to have somehow lost interest in the progress of the country. Their interest has shifted to much smaller things which are leading to acts of indiscipline, inspired very often by agencies outside the Universities. Quite a large number of students are unaware of what is going on in the country. Though they come from villages they have no clear ideas of the various programmes which are being executed in the villages for making the country better and prosperous. Quite a large number of students who come to the University think that they will be taught in the University just as they were taught in the schools and they study very little by themselves. As they read only for two or three months in a year it is difficult for them to read standard textbooks and they have to depend on 'Short-cuts', 'important questions and answers', etc. A number of students who come to the University are not initiated in any games whatsoever. The demand for taking more and more boys in the schools is on the increase. Many of the schools have increased their enrolments to such an extent that they can hardly provide any games for their students. Many new schools have sprung up which do not offer any facility except for mere teaching of books in mechanical manner. Besides the quality of the students coming from the schools is poor. What can colleges and Universities do in such a depres-

sing situation? It is here that the scheme of National Service becomes relevant. What shape should this service take?

In our country manual work is not considered to be dignified. The class of people who get work done by others are considered to be superior to the class of people who work for themselves or others. This leads to a serious situation in villages. At the time of transplantation and many other agricultural operations there is need of labour. Men and women sit idle, they are on the brink of starvation but they do not take part in agricultural operations because their forefathers did not do so. This attitude of mind has to disappear if our agricultural production has to go up and if our society has to get a democratic and equalitarian deal. Villagers have to be educated into practising social equality. Our plans will not work unless the attitude of the villagers changes and unless they themselves are keen on implementing the plans.

The question is whether we can evolve a scheme which will make the rural people realise the need for improvement and how we can use student talent in this task. The Central Advisory Board of Education gave thought to this matter in the year 1950. The first Five-Year Plan of Government had provision for Labour and Social Service for students for a small period and in the second Five-Year Plan there have been a number of schemes of Social Service Camps, Campus Works Projects, and Village Apprenticeships. All these are voluntary. A good deal of experience has been gained from these schemes. Can this experience help us in making national service compulsory? The Prime Minister addressed a letter to the Chief Ministers of various States in June, 1958, in which he wrote "I have been thinking that it would be a very good thing for our people if we could have given compulsory service for all young men and women between the age limit of 19 to 22". A scheme for National Service was drafted by the

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Ministry of Education, Government of India and placed before the Education Ministers' Conference held in New Delhi on 8th and 9th August, 1959. The Conference recommended that "(i) the question of introducing the scheme on a compulsory basis should be considered after the experience of a pilot project to be operated for a few years; (ii) pilot projects of three months' duration consistent with the objectives of the scheme and preferably one for each University, for students volunteering to participate in the programme, may be organized; and (iii) a committee may be appointed to work out the details of the proposed pilot projects". The Union Education Minister appointed a Committee with Dr. C. D. Deshmukh as Chairman. The Committee held a number of meetings and made the following recommendations:

Objectives

The primary objective of national service should be to provide more lively awareness on the part of the educated youth of the purposes and processes of the nation's reconstruction efforts, especially in the rural areas, and to inculcate in them a sense of discipline, a spirit of social service, dignity of manual labour and dedication to the cause of the country in order to make up the deficiencies of the present educational system such as lack of discipline, absence of self-reliance, want of maturity and lack of idealism, and thus prepare the educated youth the future leaders of the country, for the enormous tasks of national reconstruction requiring arduous, sustained and responsible work and to safeguard national security requiring a reserve of trained personnel available to meet any emergency.

Compulsion

It is necessary that any scheme of national service must be compulsory if it is to be effective and is to make a real impact to improve the quality of manpower needed by the country. A voluntary scheme would have the drawback of leaving out a good many, if not the majority of students proposed to be covered and would not be assured of success unless sufficient inducements were offered. If improvement on the national scale is to be the aim, which it ought

to be, no voluntary scheme can ever hope to achieve it. There can be no objection, on principle or otherwise, to compulsion as it is the right of the State to ask its citizens for a period of service in return for what it does for them.

No exemptions are to be allowed on any ground. The students who are not physically fit for manual work could be asked to do other suitable work. Cases of hospitalisation are in another category and may be exempted only for the period of hospitalisation and legitimate convalescence. In particular there should be absolutely no opportunity for the rich and the influential to manipulate exemptions for their children.

Duration

It is essential that national service should be of a sufficiently long duration to inculcate in the young adolescent the values of discipline, social service, dignity of manual labour and dedication to the country. It is necessary to expose young minds to good influences over an adequate period if lasting effect is to be secured on the growing personalities and developing character of the nation's youth. A period of at least nine months to a year is the minimum required for achieving the objectives of national service.

Stage

The best stage for drafting the youth in national service is when they pass out of Higher Secondary school or Pre-University class and are prepared to enter life or the University. A year's national service at that stage would greatly fill the gap left by the present Secondary education and would equip a young person better both for life or the university. Those entering life would be more mature, more disciplined and better prepared for the responsibilities of their work. Those who go to the university would be more self-reliant, more disciplined and better equipped for benefiting from university education. As a matter of fact, the observation of a young person in national service spread over a year would enable the educational authorities to select better material for university education on the basis of academic and other achievements, and

thus check the growing indiscipline and wastage which are becoming the bane of university education. Those students who are found to be talented and gifted during the operation of the national service should be given scholarships and other benefits to pursue higher education. The national service thus has tremendous possibilities of being utilized as a means of helping in judging suitability for admissions to universities on the basis of adjudged capacity of students to benefit from higher education.

Content

The content should be so devised as to effect an all-round improvement of the personality and character of the adolescent. There need be no dead uniformity—none is advocated—but the following ingredients should be dovetailed in any overall programme for the service:—

- (i) *Military Discipline*:—The students should lead a disciplined life for nine months to one year comparable to that in the armed forces. No breach of discipline should be tolerated. Adequate sanctions should be provided to deter any breach of discipline.
- (ii) *Social Service and Manual Labour*:—Social service and manual labour should be rendered for at least four hours every day in the areas selected for work under the national service. Manual labour would be an essential part of the work for every student. The labour and social service may take diverse forms depending upon the locale and the needs of the community. The work should be so organised that the community derives tangible and lasting benefit. This will inspire confidence in youth and also give them pride of achievement.
- (iii) *General Education*:—So that the national service should not lead to a gap in the education of adolescents, it should also provide broad general education laying stress on the improvement of English, learning of Hindi and other regional languages, improvement of

general knowledge, acquaintance with India's cultural heritage and Programmes of social and economic planning, etc. so that the participants on completing the national service are fit and active enough to take their place in life even if they do not enter the university. The period of national service should also be fully utilized for the emotional integration of the youth with the country and ideals it is working for. The service should also provide some opportunities for self-expression in cultural activities like music, dance, drama, but care should be taken to ensure that they do not distract from the main purposes of the service. Adequate reading material such as books, periodicals, magazines, etc. should be provided so that the youth can acquire habits of self-study, critical inquiry and love for scholarship and knowledge.

A programme worked out suitably with the above ingredients should meet the needs of all-round development of the growing adult and lead to integration of his personality. This would not only develop true discipline—physical, intellectual, moral and spiritual—but also inculcate in the youth qualities like the love of the country and dedication to social work.

Organizational Set-up

A programme of national service of the envisaged quality and magnitude should be a bridge between the terminal stage of Secondary education and entry into life or institutions of higher education. Though it will draw upon the resources of the Defence Forces, Universities, Educationists, Government departments both at the Centre and in the States engaged in social and economic development programmes, the programme suggested by the Committee would require for its implementation an organizational set-up which should be broad-based and independent. The programme must be truly national in concept and in execution and should be so devised that it develops the capacity to extend its scope to cover other

categories of citizens in appropriate age groups in course of time. While it is urgent that we concentrate our efforts on the educated youth, the other youth of the country are of no less importance for the larger interests of the country. In view of the potentialities of a comprehensive programme visualized, such a service might ultimately cover all the youth of the country, but this will require as a pre-requisite the spread of Secondary education to all young persons below the age of 17.

It is, therefore, suggested that a National Board should be set up to plan, implement and evaluate a programme of national service. This should, however, be preceded by careful preparation of a detailed plan of work for youth and for this purpose, it would be desirable to set up a representative working group of Educationists, Administrators, Defence Experts and other interests.

Finance

An investment in human resources is not to be viewed in the context of economic value of the product of such investment, as the primary aim is to build up educated young people as disciplined citizens and devoted workers so that they are an asset to the nation. The national service is thus to be viewed as a nation building programme and any cost incurred on it would more than repay itself in the long run. The economic value of the productive work which the youth are expected

to perform would not be in itself inconsiderable and should be reckoned in any estimate of the cost involved. The cost of national service, though heavy, should not be beyond our means and should be worked out in detail by the Working Group.

Even if it is difficult to introduce this scheme throughout the whole country at one time, it may be worthwhile to try it in some Universities and see from experience whether it requires any modification, whether it comes up to the expectations and brings about the necessary improvement in the quality of the students and their outlook towards life and the corresponding improvement in the villages. It is necessary that the scheme should be started in a proper way and the economy is not pressed to a point where the whole scheme becomes crumbling. It is not possible to provide much help from the University for running the scheme. Teachers have to be taken on deputation but an alternative arrangement has to be made for teaching in the University in their absence and for that also funds will be required. If the scheme is tried only in a small area, it will be necessary to allow all the students participating in the scheme to join the competitive examination till one year after their due date as determined by the birth of the student, otherwise many students who join the scheme will become over-aged or will not get the same number of competitive examinations to take as they would have got otherwise.

● A well-written life is almost as rare as a well-spent one.

—Carl yle

Roundup of activities Ministry of education

Plan Coordination Unit

The Draft Third Five-Year Plan for Education, prepared by the Working Group, was presented to the Planning Commission and circulated to all concerned. The document reviews the progress likely to be achieved at the end of the Second Plan, outlines the objectives and targets for the Third Plan and indicates the financial implications of various schemes recommended for inclusion in the Plan. The broad distribution of the proposed plan provision of Rs. 980.06 crores for achieving the targets set out is indicated below:

	Rs. in crores
Primary and Basic Education ..	502.46
Secondary Education	247.89
University and Higher Education	133.69
Physical Education and Youth Welfare Activities	30.16
Social Education and Audio-Visual Education	35.64
Education of the Handicapped	3.21
Scholarships	0.77
Development and Propagation of Hindi and Sanskrit ..	6.27
Other Programmes	19.97

Rs. 14.66 crores has been sanctioned to States as Central assistance on State schemes included in their Educational Development Plan programmes for 1959-60 after taking into account the adjustments for previous years.

ELEMENTARY AND BASIC EDUCATION

Compulsory Primary Education

An informal meeting of the Education Ministers of the six educationally backward States of Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh was held in this Ministry on 5th February, 1960. Common matters of policy and programmes with special reference to the scheme of free and compulsory primary education during the third plan were discussed. The problems of education in areas that are mostly inhabited by tribal people and other backward communities were also discussed at length. It was considered necessary to hold urgently a special survey of the existing conditions and educational requirements of these areas so that, on the basis of the data collected concrete schemes for developing education in these areas, could be formulated by the State concerned. Education Ministers have been requested that the Education Departments of their respective States may keep these in view while finalising their proposals for the Third Five Year Plan.

The Planning Commission has recently intimated the allocation of funds proposed by it for the development of education during the third plan, in different sectors. On the basis of that allocation, the question of State-wise distribution of funds available for expanding facilities for primary education, has been taken up for consideration. A tentative distribution has been worked out on the basis of the number of non-attending children at the primary stage in different States.

The Delhi Primary Education Bill, 1960 was introduced in the Rajya Sabha on

10-3-1960. It has now been referred to the Joint Select Committee of Parliament.

The Bill for introduction of compulsory primary education in the remaining Union Territories has been postponed for the time being but efforts are being made to increase literacy in them.

The draft of the model legislation for introduction of free and compulsory primary education was finalised in consultation with the Ministry of Law and circulated to the State Governments and Union Territories for their comments.

A scheme of research study on an all-India scale in the problem of wastage and stagnation, has been prepared. The scheme envisages the investigation of about ten thousand wastage and stagnation cases in every State, with a view to ascertaining at first hand from the students who left school prematurely and their guardians the following :—

- (i) Causes of leaving school before completion of the primary course;
- (ii) Concrete measures that might prevent, or at least reduce, such premature leaving of schools, and
- (iii) Financial implications of such measures.

The scheme also envisages the study of wastage and stagnation among special groups and communities, such as tribal people, girls and backward communities.

A special study was made of the experiment of democratic decentralisation in Rajasthan. A meeting was held in Jaipur to which the Development Commissioner, Secretaries of Education, Finance and Law Departments and the State Development Commissioner (Panchayats) were invited. Adviser (Primary Education) also attended by special invitation. Suggestions were given for amending the Act and for working out the principles on which the rules under the Act should be prepared.

A report about primary education in Manipur has been submitted in regard to policy decisions to be taken on some important problems.

A special study has been undertaken on "Teachers for Primary schools". A comprehensive questionnaire has been sent to all the teacher training institutions for primary school teachers in India. The replies received are being scrutinized.

Payments have been sanctioned to the following State Governments for the amounts shown against each :

State	Amount in Rs.
Andhra Pradesh	5,00,000
Assam	4,00,000
Bihar	7,00,000
Bombay	12,00,000
Madhya Pradesh	15,00,000
Orissa	10,00,000
Rajasthan	5,00,000
U. Pradesh	22,00,000
West Bengal	5,00,000

Government of India's approval has been communicated to the State Governments for their programmes of expansion of teacher training facilities for 1960-61.

In order to take steps for final adjustment with the State Governments of Central grants under the scheme of All India Educational Survey, a study of all the relevant cases have been made and a comprehensive note giving the present position in respect of all such cases has been prepared. This will be utilized in taking further action for the final adjustment of Central grants under this scheme as early as possible.

A note on the nature and extent of responsibilities regarding the programme of compulsory education that may be delegated to the village panchayats has been prepared and circulated among the State Governments and their comments invited.

Arrangements are being made to hold during May and June, 1960 four regional seminars at Puri, Mahabaleswar, Bangalore

and Simla. These are intended to give necessary orientation to the Senior Officers of State Education Departments and Directorates in matters relating to the programme of free and compulsory primary education. Working papers on the topics to be discussed in these seminars are being prepared.

National Institute Of Basic Education

(i) In view of the concern shown by the Assessment Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Basic education regarding the teaching of Educational Psychology in Basic training institutions, the Institute organised a one-week National seminar for lecturers in Psychology of the Post-Graduate Basic training institutions in February, 1960. Dr. Stephen M. Corey, Special Consultant in Education from U.S.A. acted as Consultant during this seminar.

(ii) At the request of the Delhi Directorate of Education, the Institute gave detailed guidance in organising a one-week training course for the administrative staff of the Education Department of the Delhi Municipal Corporation, Directorate of Education, and the New Delhi Municipal Committee.

(iii) A party of four Sikkimese teachers was attached to the Institute for one week for getting themselves acquainted with the system of Basic education.

(iv) Report of the pilot survey for relative costliness of education in Basic and non-Basic schools was completed.

(v) The following publications were released from the press during this period:

- (a) *Buniyadi Talim*—January, 1960 issue.
- (b) Basic Education Bibliography.
- (c) Basic Education Abstract No. 2 of 1958.

(vi) One Unesco Expert in Arts and Crafts, Shri Musaji Takaki from Japan joined the Institute.

Centrally Sponsored Scheme for the establishment of Post-Basic schools.

Rs. 7,929 has been sanctioned to the Orissa Government for upgrading the Government Senior Basic School at Raj-Sunakhala.

Rs. 11,384.32 has been sanctioned to the Secretary, Rajasthan Vishwa Vidya-peeth, Udaipur, as second and final instalment, for the establishment of a post-Basic School.

Rs. 4,000 has been sanctioned as Government of India's first instalment to the Post-Basic School, Tiruvur, Krishna District, Andhra, through the State Government.

Recognition of the Diploma awarded by the Hindustani Talimi Sangh.

In consultation with the Union Public Service Commission the Government of India have recognised the diploma in teachers training awarded by the Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Wardha, to graduate teacher trainees as equivalent to B.T., B.Ed., L.T. or Post-Graduate Degree/Diploma issued by a University or Education Department of the States, for the purpose of employment under the Government of India. States have also been informed accordingly.

Scheme of Orienting Elementary Schools Towards the Basic Pattern.

Administrative approval has been given to the Tripura and Lacadive, Minicoy and Amindive Islands administrations to implement the above scheme.

Expansion of Girls Education and Training of Women Teachers at the Elementary Stage.

Out of the budget provision of Rs. 70.50 lakhs for 1959-60 a total sum of Rs. 70,37,090 was sanctioned to State Governments in March, 1960 as given below.

State Governments have since been informed of the allocation available to them of a total sum of Rs. 67.56 lakhs for projects to be implemented during 1960-61. The

allocations are made on a *per capital* basis of the number of girls of the age group 6—14 not enrolled in schools.

Participation in International exhibitions and festivals of Children's books

The Government of India have off and on been receiving invitations from foreign countries and international organisations to participate in exhibitions and festivals of children's books. It was accordingly decided to make a very selective collection of children's books through private and governmental agencies to be kept ready for being sent to such exhibitions, festivals etc. whenever an invitation was received. Accordingly the State Governments and publishers all over India were addressed and a collection of about 1,100 books has been made. An *ad hoc* Committee has also been set up to screen these books for selecting the best out of them.

Production of Literature and other Material for Basic Education

So far ten monographs have been prepared. The screening committee has postponed the printing of these monographs for another year. Possibilities to get them printed through some suitable agencies are also being explored.

Preparation of manuscripts on various parts of the source books on social studies and general science has been assigned to select authors, who have been requested to submit their manuscripts by the end of July, 1960. Authors will be assisted by the National Institute of Basic Education in the preparation of manuscripts.

Loans for the construction of Hostels in Basic Training Institutions

Sanctions to the following State Governments were issued for payment of the amounts of loans shown against them:

	Rs.
Bombay	58,075
Rajasthan	50,000
Punjab	68,000
Mysore	68,000
Andhra Pradesh	75,000
TOTAL ..	3,19,075

Name of State	Amount sanctioned in 1959-60 (Rs.)	Allotment 1960-61 (Rs.)
Andhra Pradesh	4,37,090	5,69,000
Assam	1,50,000	1,65,000
Bihar	9,80,000	8,26,000
Bombay	9,00,000	7,34,000
Jammu & Kashmir	1,00,000	97,000
Kerala	—	94,000
Madhya Pradesh	6,00,000	5,68,000
Madras	70,000	4,94,000
Mysore	5,00,000	3,54,000
Orissa	4,00,000	3,61,000
Punjab	4,00,000	3,86,000
Rajasthan	4,00,000	3,86,000
Uttar Pradesh ..	17,00,000	13,84,000
West Bengal ..	5,00,000	4,24,000
TOTAL ..	70,37,090	67,56,000

Administrative approval for Rs. 1.00 lakh was also accorded to the Government of Kerala.

Encouragement of Children's Literature Prize Competition

Entries for VI Prize Competition have been received. The result is scheduled to be announced on 14th November 1960 i.e. Children's Day. Entries have also been received for the award of five additional prizes of Rs. 500.

Organization of Sahitya Rachnalayas (Children's Literature)

Sanction for Rs. 7,500 and Rs. 10,102 to the State Governments of Madras and Mysore respectively was issued for the organization of Sahitya Rachnalayas for training authors in the technique of preparing literature for children, during 1959-60.

Financial Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

The following grants were sanctioned to voluntary organisations working in the field of Basic and Pre-primary Education:

	Rs.
Hingne Stree Shiksha Samstha, Poona (Bombay).	2,000
Khalsa Basic Training College, Muktsar (Punjab).	3,000
Gram Bal Shiksha Kendra, Bombay.	9,948
Gandhi Vidya Mandir, Sardar-shahar (Rajasthan).	53,431
Poona Seva Sadan Society, Nagpur.	2,000
Arya Kanya Vidyalaya, Bhopal.	2,000
Gandhi Vidya Mandir, Sardar-shahar.	6,307
TOTAL ..	78,486

Withdrawal of recognition granted to all Institutes in U.K. for the Montessori Method of Education

The Government of India has decided to withdraw the recognition granted to all institutions in U.K. for the Montessori Method of Education, with effect from June, 1961 in view of ample facilities for training in pre-primary education now existing in India. Indian students will henceforth be discouraged from going to U.K. for this purpose.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Reorganisation of Secondary Education

The Ministry is engaged in a comprehensive programme for the reorganisation of the whole system. Major schemes concern the conversion of existing secondary schools into multipurpose and higher secondary type, training of teachers for these new schools, improvement of salary scales of secondary school teachers etc. Central grants are being given to the State Governments for the implementation of their plans on an approved basis. During 1959-60 the following grants for this purpose have been sanctioned to the various States :

State Schemes of Elementary Education Group

For the year 1959-60, a sum of Rs.10.1629 crores has been sanctioned to various State Governments for implementation of their elementary education group scheme.

Pilot project of Improvement of Science Education in Elementary Schools

The following amounts were sanctioned to various States under this scheme for the year 1959-60 :

	Rs.
Bombay	5,000
Kerala	7,000
Madhya Pradesh	5,000
Orissa	5,000
Uttar Pradesh	4,000

Andhra Pradesh	28,52,000
Assam	20,44,000
Bihar	32,51,000
Bombay	33,27,000
Jammu and Kashmir	8,56,000
Kerala	13,63,000
Madhya Pradesh	22,26,000
Madras	34,30,000
Mysore	15,67,000
Punjab	47,70,000
Rajasthan	39,84,000
Uttar Pradesh	34,95,000
West Bengal	89,21,000
Orissa	12,68,000
TOTAL ..	4,33,54,000

Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

The following grants were sanctioned:—

Name of Institution	Amount paid	Purpose of grant
	Rs.	
1. Jeevan Bharati, Surat	2,316	Continuation of Cooperative Training Programme.
2. Jeevan Bharati, Surat	4,470	Continuation of Educational and Vocational Guidance Centre.
3. Koshatwar High School Pusad, Bombay.	8,000 (Second instalment)	Construction of Science Laboratories.
4. Tilak Dhari Training college, Jaunpur (U.P.)	(i) Rs. 4,450 Non-recurring (Second instalment). (ii) Rs. 3,450 for meeting the expenditure for 1958-59.	Educational and Vocational Guidance Centre.
5. Kisan Higher Secondary School, Basti (U.P.)	2,500 (II instalment)	Construction of school building.
6. D.A.V. Higher Secondary School, Chitra Gupta Road, New Delhi.	1,404	Continuation of Educational and Vocational Guidance Centre.

Loans for the Construction of Hostels

The following loans were sanctioned under the Scheme to the State Governments for being re-advanced to Training Colleges/High or Higher Secondary Schools:

Banasthali Vidyapeeth, Jaipur

35,00.00 was sanctioned to the Banasthali Vidyapeeth, Jaipur, for the year 1959-60 for the maintenance and running of the institute.

Central Institute of English, Hyderabad

Forty-two trainees (from ten States and three Union Territories) were trained at the Institute from 15th November, 1959 to 15th March, 1960 in the regular course. Of these six were from training colleges, 12 from Arts and Science Colleges and 24 from High Schools and Higher Secondary Schools.

Of the Research Projects that have been taken up by the Institute, one has been fully worked out. It relates to the preparation of a graded vocabulary based on the frequency counts of words essential for comprehension of textbooks and lectures in the social and physical sciences. A summer course has been planned in Hyderabad

Name of State	Amount Sanctioned
	Rs.
Andhra Pradesh	1,00,000
Assam	20,000
Bombay	1,00,000
Kerala	25,000
Madras	1,00,000
Madhya Pradesh	1,00,000
Mysore	90,000
Rajasthan	1,00,000
Punjab	30,000
Uttar Pradesh	95,000
West Bengal	1,00,000
TOTAL ..	8,60,000

from 20th April to 1st June, 1960 to train P.U.C. teachers of English in the use of this material.

The Institute has prepared teaching material for two distinct courses in factual English,—one for assisting students of social sciences, and another for the students of physical sciences.

A new service has been started by the Institute for Directorates of Education and Educational Institutions in the country. The Institute can now record from master-tapes recitations of poems, phonetic exercises, and talks on the teaching of English without charging any fees, provided tape rolls are supplied to them. One or two Directorates of Education and some schools and colleges have already availed themselves of this facility.

Sixty-eight trainees from all over India were trained during the period from 15th March, 1960 to 30th April, 1960. The Short Summer Course was specially meant for training Pre-University teachers in the use of the vocabulary material on which research has been done at the Institute. The trainees then observed the teaching of this material to three divisions of 80 post matriculates each by instructors appointed for the purpose.

Union Territories

It has been decided that in Government Schools in the Union Territories where the enrolment has been stabilized, all the temporary teaching posts which have been in existence for a period of three years or more may be made permanent, instead of 80 per cent of them as at present.

The President has been pleased to empower the Lt. Governor, Himachal Pradesh to grant educational scholarships on a scale prescribed by the Government of Punjab and in case where no scales have been prescribed by that Government on a scale prescribed by him with the prior approval of the Government of India, provided the expenditure on individual students does not exceed Rs. 5,000 per annum (non-recurring) and Rs. 1,000 per annum (recurring) in each case.

Sanction of the President has been conveyed to the Andamans Administration for the creation of the post of a Principal for the Multi-purpose Higher Secondary School, Port Blair, in the scale of Rs. 350—25—500—EB—30—590 with the usual allowances as applicable to Central Government Servants of his grade in the Islands, with effect from 1st April, 1960, for a period of one year in the first instance.

Sanction of the President has been conveyed to the Manipur Administration to the grant of stipends amounting to Rs. 30.00 per month during their training period to all the existing untrained teachers in Government (Territorial Council) and Government-aided schools who are sent for training, in addition to their usual pay and allowances, with effect from the next academic year.

Central Institute of Education, Delhi

To learn from first hand knowledge about the socio-economic conditions of the villages, the Planning Forum of the Institute organized a trip on the 13th and 14th February to Sohna, Baluda, and Bhainsi for a sample survey.

The following seminars/courses were held:

- (i) A short course on the 'Improvement of English Pronunciation'.
- (ii) Seminars on the Improvement of Handwriting in English of local school children.
- (iii) Parent-Teacher Cooperation.
- (iv) Utilization of the Physical Environment in the Teaching of Geography.
- (v) The Effective Use of Bulletin Board.

Central Bureau of Textbook Research

Analysis sheets for Geography Textbooks for Primary and Middle Grades have been completed and are ready for printing.

A book entitled "Hints to Authors of Social Studies Textbooks" has been completed.

The following two booklets have been published.

Analysis sheet for the Objective Data in the History of Textbooks for Primary Schools.

Analysis sheet for the Objective Data in the Language Textbooks for Primary Schools.

Concepts for the following were prepared:—

Caste System, its origin and future.

How the Community life began.

Mohenjodaro.

A Community on the bank of the Tiber.

Exercises for the following lessons have been prepared;

This is your story

A Buried City comes to light.

A New people introduce a New Way of Life.

Ram, the Bania's son wants to go to High School.

Amenophis' School work.

A Noble Boy chooses to serve a slave.

A Blind Singer builds a new civilization.

A draft for "Standardization of Hindi Vocabulary" for Grades I to VIII has been prepared.

Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance.

The Bureau continued the work on the on-going projects in the field of research, preparation of tools and collection of educational and occupational information.

The data collected for class VIII selection Tests Project is being statistically analysed. Norms for Class VIII have been found for Raven's Matrices, one of the tests used in the project.

The various tests of the Science Selection Battery have been discussed, critically examined and modified. Final drafts for all five tests have been completed.

The statistical work for determining the coefficients of reliability of the tests of the above mentioned battery on the basis of the data obtained from the first try-out has been completed.

The work of devising items for the different series of tests to be used for the Merit Scholarship Selection Programme has been completed. Arrangements are being made for trying them out in some of the schools.

A two-day seminar on "Occupational Information" was organized by the Bureau on April 7th and 8th and was attended by 19 teachers from local schools.

Dr. F. M. Fletcher, a T.C.M. Consultant, met Evaluation Officers in groups and advised them on the processing of test material, which they had collected at the various evaluation workshops in different subjects.

A brochure on 'Evaluation in General Science' was brought out, and the printing of two other brochures on 'General Concept of Evaluation' and 'Evaluation in Social Studies' is in progress.

Scheme of Strengthening 26 Multipurpose Schools as Model Institutes.

In accordance with the above scheme of the Directorate the following institutions were selected for supply of equipment and expert guidance during the quarter under review:—

Government Model Multipurpose High School, Jabalpur.

Jagadbandhu Institute, Calcutta.

Sri Ramakrishna Mission High School, Narendrapur.

Maharaja's Multipurpose School, Jaipur.

St. John's Diocesan Girls' High School, Calcutta.

Sree Maheshwari Vidyalaya High School, Calcutta.

Equipment was despatched to all these institutions and the T.C.M. Consultants spent about ten days with the staff of each of these schools for giving them advice and guidance

in setting up the equipment and in organising the elective courses.

Extension Services

A ten-day workshop of Coordinators of Extension Services Centres attended by 47 co-ordinators was held at the Central Institute of Education, Delhi, from 29th February to 9th March, 1960. They discussed Action Research, Group Dynamics, Follow-up and Intensive work with schools, Audio-Visual Aids, School Broadcasts, Evaluation and Science Clubs.

Seminars

Seven Subject Teachers' Seminars and eight Headmasters' and Education Officers, Seminars in different subjects were held in the various States during the quarter under report. Two Follow-up Workshops were also held at Wardha and Aligarh for Headmasters who had attended previous seminars and had started projects in their schools. Two conferences of Heads of multipurpose schools were also organised at Calcutta and Hyderabad.

Science Clubs

Three conferences for the sponsors of science clubs were held at Cuttack, Belgaum and Jabalpur.

With the help of the staff of the Extension Services Departments, the assessment of science clubs located in the areas of these Departments and financed by the Directorate was undertaken. The reports received are being reviewed. Some of the observations arising out of the reports so far reviewed were discussed at the co-ordinators' workshop and suggestions were made for strengthening and stabilizing the science club movement.

T.C.M. Books and Equipment

Eight sets of offset printing machines with accessories and spares were despatched to the Extension Services centres at Chandigarh, Allahabad, Patna, Baroda, Hyderabad, Saidapet (Madras), Perianaickenpalayam and Mysore. Three thousand and two hundred books were also despatched to the various centres.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Three-Year Degree Course Scheme

Rs. 14,00,139.50 was sanctioned to the Government of West Bengal on account of non-recurring expenditure incurred in 1958-59 on the implementation of the Three-Year Degree Course Scheme in the Government as well as non-government colleges of Calcutta University.

An "on account" grant of Rs. 8,50,000 was sanctioned to the West Bengal Government as central share of assistance on account of non-recurring expenditure incurred during 1959-60 on the implementation of the Scheme in the Government as well as non-Government colleges of Calcutta University.

"On Account" grants were sanctioned to the State Governments for implementation of the Three-Year Degree Course Scheme in government colleges during 1959-60 as follows :—

	Rs.	
Andhra Pradesh	2,00,000	(Non-Rec. + Rec.)
Orissa ..	1,50,000	(Non-Rec. only)
Rajasthan ..	1,50,000	(Non-Rec. + Rec.)
Mysore ..	1,00,000	(Non-Rec. + Rec.)
Madhya Pradesh	3,00,000	(Non-Rec. + Rec.)

The Ministry of Education has transferred the entire work relating to the Three-Year Degree course Scheme to the University Grants Commission.

T.C.M. Programme

The following adjustment sanctions were issued.—

- Rs. 36,410.49 on account of the material (books and periodicals) received by the Institute of Public Administration, Lucknow University under T.C.M. assistance Programme.
- Rs. 1,92,892.07 for the books and equipment received by the beneficiary institutions under an operational Agreement of T.C.M. as assistance to Home Science Education and Research.

RURAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Grants and Stipends

The following grants and stipends have been sanctioned to the various Rural Institutes during the period under report:

	<i>Grants</i>	<i>Stipends</i>
Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalya Rural Institute, Coimbatore.	30,000	32,625
Vidyabhavan Rural Institute, Udaipur.	67,926	5,565
Mouni Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Gargoti.	1,15,000	5,760
Gandhigram Rural Institute, Madurai.	1,00,000	7,560
Rural Institute, Amravati.	15,309	11,070
Jamia Rural Institute, Jamianagar, New Delhi.	1,20,000	7,500
Lok Bharati Rural Institute, Sanosara.	3,000	960
Rural Institute of Higher Studies, Birouli.	2,55,000	3,565
Institute of Rural Higher Education, Sriniketan.	1,52,735	6,000
Kasturba Rural Institute, Rajpura.	—	2,400
Balwant Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Agra.	1,00,000	7,470

National Council for Rural Higher Education

The Seventh meeting of the Standing Committee of the National Council for Rural Higher Education was held in New Delhi on 22nd and 23rd March 1960 respectively.

The Council reviewed the employment position of graduates from different Rural Institutes. The number of Agriculture students who passed in 1958 was 65, out of which 60 have been employed.

Out of 61 students who passed the agricultural examination in 1959, 36 have got employment. Out of 35 Engineering students, 31 have got employment. Out of 158 students who have passed the Diploma in Rural Services, 65 got employment in various departments of State Governments. The Council resolved that Rural Institutes should regulate admission in accordance with employment opportunities, and that small bureaux should be set up to collect all information regarding likely avenues of employment and disseminate the information to the students for guidance.

The Council set up a Committee to examine the question in detail as to how Rural Institutes could be utilized for the training of various categories of non-official workers.

The Council recommended that a small Technical Assessment Committee should be set up to inspect the Rural Institutes for their effective working.

Assistance from T.C.M.

The following adjustment sanctions in respect of the material and equipment received by the Rural Institutes and the Ministry have been issued.

	<i>Rs.</i>
Audio-Visual Aids supplied to the 10 Rural Institutes.	40,941.70
82 educational films received by the Ministry.	24,817.28
Books and periodicals supplied to the 10 Rural institutes and the Ministry.	34,240.29

The T.C.M. under its agreement is providing to secure the services of Dr. Luther Ambrose, for 21 months, and the assistance of four short term consultants for a period of 4½ months each in the field of Agricultural Engineering, Public Health, Teacher Training, and Methods of Extension. The T.C.M. will also provide research commodities worth \$30,000 to the eleven Rural Institutes.

Sanitary Inspectors Course

The Ministry have accorded approval Rural Institutes at Gandhigram and

Udaipur to start a Sanitary Inspectors' Course which is of one year's duration from July, 1960. The syllabus and the scheme of studies have been approved by the Ministry in consultation with the Ministry of Health. The Ford Foundation will bear recurring and non-recurring expenditure for the first 18 months. The foundation has released so far, to each institute an amount of \$79,250.

Seminars

It is proposed to organize the following seminars and Orientation Courses during the current financial year:

Home Service Teaching in Rural Institutes and the place of extension for the Home Service students.

Teaching of Small Scale Industries and Extension Programme.

Extension in Social Welfare.

Extension in Co-operation.

Extension in Social Education.

Extension in Agricultural Education.

Seminar in Teacher Training.

Place of Extension in the curriculum for the engineering course.

The expenditure on these seminars is being met from the Ford Foundation grant of \$25,000 deposited with the A.G.C.R. Out of this a sum of Rs. 35,903.34 has already been utilized on three seminars held in the past.

Recognition of Diploma in Rural Service

The State Government of Madhya Pradesh have recognised the Diploma for purposes of appointment to posts under them. The West Bengal Government has also recognized the Diploma for the posts of Extension Officers in Industries, Extension Officers in Cooperation, Social Education Organizer, Inspector of Co-operative Societies and Panchayat Supervisor. The Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, and the Cooperative Training College, Poona, have also recognized the Diploma for admission to their institutes.

Diploma in Civil and Rural Engineering

The Madhya Pradesh Government have recognized the Diploma for the purpose of employment to subordinate posts and services under them.

The Institution of Engineering, Calcutta, has accorded exemption to the diploma holders in Civil and Rural Engineering from appearing in the Studentship Examination of the Institution.

AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION

The first short-term training course in audio-visual education was held at the National Institute of Audio-visual Education, New Delhi, from 10th February, 1960 to 23rd April, 1960. In all, 27 trainees, sponsored by the Central Government, various State Governments and Union Administrations attended this course and were awarded certificates on its completion.

The next short-term course is likely to commence about the middle of June, 1960. Meantime, the institute at the request of the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education, is conducting a special course of four weeks' duration from 2nd May, 1960, for the Coordinators of Extension Services.

Two-to-three days' training in the techniques of operation of 16 MM sound film projectors was given to a group of teachers from the Lady Irwin College, New Delhi, and a group of nurses from the College of Nursing, New Delhi.

At the request of the Principal of the College of Nursing, Government of India, the National Institute of Audio-visual Education have arranged a course of ten lectures for the Master's Nursing Course students.

Central Film Library

43 films, 15 filmstrips and 100 books were added to the library. 500 books were issued to trainees. 2,515 films and 42 filmstrips were issued to 428 members of the Central Film Library. 59 new members have been enrolled, bringing the total membership to 1,337.

124 film shows were conducted by the mobile cinema van. Most of these were conducted in schools, welfare units and for private associations. Besides, the mobile cinema unit conducted a controlled experiment on geography films in S.G.T.B. Khalsa Higher Secondary School, Karol Bagh, New Delhi. The ninth class of the school was divided into two sections and one section was taught through audio-visual aids. Nearly 67 films on 19 topics in geography were shown in the classroom. The results will be analysed from the answer books of the annual examination which will show how far educational films can prove advantageous in supplementing class teaching. The results, at present, are awaited from the school authorities.

Ten meetings of the preview committee were held, in which 54 films and two filmstrips were previewed.

41 films received from T.C.M. for N.I.A. V.E. were examined and certified at Bombay.

Applications in respect of 114 films, along with receipt challans, (belonging to the Central Film Library), were presented to the Central Board of Film Censors, Bombay.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Grants-in-aid

Grants were sanctioned to the following voluntary educational organisations for developing activities in the field of social education:—

	Rs.
Ramakrishna Mission Kumarpukar, Hoogly, West Bengal.	5,000
Bharat Guna Vardhak Sanstha, Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh.	2,000
Ramakrishna Mission, Baranagar, Calcutta.	2,500
Lok Kalyan Samiti, Delhi.	3,600
All India Women's Conference, New Delhi.	10,000
Ramakrishna Mission Ashrama, Narendrapur, 24-Parganas, West Bengal.	2,700
Ramakrishna Mission, New Delhi.	2,628
Dev Samaj College for Women, Ferozepur City.	3,600

Rs. 60,000 were released to Jamia Millia Islamia as fifth instalment for execution of the scheme of experimental adult schools. The schools started have now been functioning for about two years. The scheme will come to a close in July, 1960, after final tests.

Rs. 3,000 were sanctioned to the Indian Society of Labour Economics, Lucknow, from the Education Minister's Discretionary Fund for Publication of their journal.

The third and fourth instalments of grant-in-aid to St. Marks Boys' Town, Hyderabad, amounting to Rs. 11,879.46 were released through the State Government.

National Fundamental Education Centre

The National Fundamental Education Centre started the training course for the fourth batch of district officers on 18th January, 1960. Twelve officers from the following States reported for training:—

Orissa	2
West Bengal	3 (including one woman officer)
Punjab	1
Mysore	1
Kerala	1
Bombay	2
Bihar	1
Rajasthan	1

Two research projects entitled 'Village Meeting Places and Community Centres' and 'Reading Habits and Interests of Village People' have been completed and the reports are under preparation.

The following research projects have been taken in hand by members of the academic staff:—

- 'Health Habits of Village People'. Shri A. K. Sen, Doctor-cum-Health Instructor.
- 'Attitudes of Illiterate Adults to Literacy'. Shri N. A. Ansari, Field Work Supervisor.
- 'Study of Superstitions and Taboos in a Village'. Kumari Sushila Mehta, Sociologist.

The Audio-visual Unit of the Centre brought out a set of pictures for flannelgraph on 'Problems of Rural Health'. The unit has completed drawing of pictures for the pamphlet 'Use of Audio-visual Aids'. The library of the centre has now 4,110 books.

National Book Trust

The National Book Trust has published the following six books:—

The Voice of the Uninvolved, by Shri C. Rajagopalachari, in English.

India Today and Tomorrow, by Shri Jawaharlal Nehru, in Gujarati and Kannada.

Kalki, by Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, in Telugu and Marathi.

Jwalamukhi, by Shri A. G. Sheorey, in Marathi.

Production of Basic and Cultural Literature

As a result of the second prize competition announced under the scheme, 37 entries have been received in various regional languages, along with their English translations. The books/manuscripts will be sent to reviewers before the awards are finalised.

The History of India

The manuscript of 'The History of India' has been sent to the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting for publication in Hindi and other Indian languages.

Expert Committee on Janta Colleges

The Standing Committee on Social Education of the C.A.B.E. had considered the recommendations of the Committee on Rural Education about Janta Colleges and suggested that a small committee of experts should be set up to examine the precise causes of the failure of the existing Janta Colleges and suggest how their specific objectives could be served. Such a committee has been set up. The Principals of all Janta Colleges have been requested to send progress reports of their institutions with a view to helping the committee in its work.

Preparation of Eight Graded Books for Neo-literates

The Hindustani Cultural Society, to whom a scheme for the preparation of eight graded books for neo-literates was entrusted, has prepared the drafts of the first four books of the series. These drafts are at present under examination by an expert committee appointed for this purpose.

SOCIAL WELFARE AND EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED

Social and Moral Hygiene and After-care Programme

Administrative approval for construction of a building for the State Home at Silchar (Assam) for men discharged from correctional institutions at a cost not exceeding Rs. 1,00,000 was accorded to the Government of Assam. The Central Government is to share 50 per cent of the expenditure.

Advisory Board on Social Welfare

A meeting of the Selection Committee under the Advisory Board on Social Welfare was held on 10-3-1960 in which the proforma and rules for grants for the scheme "Research in Social Welfare" were finalised.

T.C.M. Programme

Books worth \$3077.40 have been received by the Institute of Social Sciences, Kashi Vidyapeeth, Varanasi, under the O.A. No. 44 Social Welfare Education of the T.C.M. Programme.

The Children Bill, 1960

The Children Bill, 1960 was discussed in the Lok Sabha on 28th April, 1960 and was referred to the Joint Select Committee. In addition to 15 members nominated by the Rajya Sabha, 30 members from the Lok Sabha were nominated to serve on the committee.

Ad-hoc Grants

Rs. 23,880 were sanctioned to the Udai-pur School of Social Work for maintenance charges during 1959-60 and also for the purchase of equipment, furniture and books.

Rs. 3,464.16 representing the second instalment of the grant-in-aid was sanctioned to the All-India Women's Conference, New Delhi, for 1958-59.

Rs. 8,000 were sanctioned to the Indian Conference of Social Work, Bombay, for the year 1959-60.

Rs. 800 were sanctioned to the Shri-manta Shankar Mission, Nowgong, for transcribing books into Bharati Braille.

Research in Social Welfare

Rs. 4,000 were sanctioned to the Indian Council for Child Welfare, New Delhi, for preliminary study to conduct a sample survey for the Administration Project in Delhi.

Homes/Infirmaries and Social Welfare and Rehabilitation etc.

The policy of gradual liquidation of homes/infirmaries by rehabilitating able-bodied inmates through various schemes of vocational/technical training was continued during the quarter under review. 253 inmates are reported to have been dispersed from these institutions during the month of January, 1960. In the beginning of February 1960, there were 13,983 inmates in 31 homes/infirmaries spread over seven States/Union Territories. The number of recipients of doles outside the homes on that date was 2,085.

In pursuance of the policy of winding-up small and uneconomic homes by merging them with bigger units, it has been decided to close down the home at Udaipur with effect from 31st May, 1960 and transfer its inmates to other homes/infirmaries.

19 Training-cum-Production Centres under the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate continued to impart training and provide wage work to women enrolled with them. During the month of February, 1960, the number of trainees and wage-earners in these centres were 608 and 1,438 respectively.

Surveys of the Incidence of the Handicapped

A survey of the incidence of the handicapped in Greater Delhi, which had been undertaken by the Delhi School of Social

Work, has since been completed and a report thereon has been published.

Voluntary Organisations for the Handicapped

Rs. 10,000 were given to the Saket Council, Chandigarh, under this scheme.

Scholarships for the Handicapped

Scholarships amounting to Rs. 10,525, Rs. 6,871 and Rs. 11,079 were given during the quarter for the blind, the deaf and the orthopaedically handicapped respectively.

Special Employment Office for the Handicapped

It has been decided to continue the Employment Office for another year i.e. up to 28-2-1961.

Rehabilitation of Displaced Persons and Students

The educational qualifications of 23 displaced persons have been verified from the records available in this Ministry on references received from the various Ministries and the Punjab University.

201 displaced students pursuing various courses of studies have been granted financial assistance through the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, involving an expenditure of Rs. 24,693.

Rs. 19,039 have been placed at the disposal of the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, for the grant of stipends to 60 students belonging to indigent families displaced from West Pakistan.

Rs. 3,54,023 have been sanctioned in favour of the Punjab Government as Government of India share at the rate of 50% of the recurring expenditure incurred during 1959-60 on the maintenance of Basic, post-Basic and High Schools at Rajpura and Faridatad (including the teachers' training schools at Faridabad).

Rs. 23,000 have been sanctioned in favour of the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, for the grant of stipends to displaced students from West Pakistan.

Rs. 3,800 have been sanctioned in favour of the Bombay Government on account of the arrears etc. of stipends to be paid to displaced students for the previous three years, i.e., 1956-57 to 1959-60, as well as payment of stipends to a few deserving students for completion of their education.

Rs. 9,861 have been sanctioned in favour of the Mysore Government on account of expenditure incurred by them on financial assistance to displaced students from West Pakistan.

YOUTH WELFARE AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Labour and Social Service Camps

Rs. 1,45,030.25 has been paid as grants to the State Governments, Universities, N.C.C. Directorate of the Ministry of Defence and Voluntary Organisations like the

Bharat Sevak Samaj, Bharat Scouts and Guides for conducting Labour and Social Service Camps.

Campus Work Projects

Rs. 2,72,948.00 has been sanctioned to Universities and State Governments as the 2nd/3rd instalments of grants for 30 projects which were approved during the years 1957-58 and 1958-59.

Sports and Games

A grant of Rs. 4,000 was sanctioned in favour of the President, Amateur Athletic Federation of India, Patiala, for the visit of an Indian Athletic team to Pakistan in January, 1960.

Grants were sanctioned to the following State Governments for acquisition of playfields in Educational Institutions, purchase of sports equipment and popularisation of sports in rural areas:—

<i>Name of State</i>	<i>Grants for acquisition of play-fields</i>	<i>Grant for purchase of sports equipment</i>	<i>Grants for popularisation of sports in rural areas</i>
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Assam	—	4,000	4,500
Bihar	—	8,000	18,000
Madhya Pradesh	—	4,000	13,500
Bombay	—	12,000	22,500
Punjab	—	8,000	9,000
Madras	—	7,000	13,500
Orissa	—	3,000	9,000
Uttar Pradesh	—	11,000	31,500
West Bengal	—	12,000	13,500
Andhra Pradesh	—	6,000	13,500
Jammu & Kashmir	—	2,000	4,500
Mysore	—	4,000	9,000
Rajasthan	—	3,000	9,000
Kerala	—	6,000	9,000
Manipur	14,375	—	3,000
Delhi	—	—	5,000
Himachal Pradesh	—	—	3,000
Tripura	18,625	—	3,000
A. & N. Islands	—	—	2,000
L. M. & A. Islands	—	—	2,000
Pondicherry	—	—	2,000
TOTAL ..	33,000	90,000	2,00,000

The following grants-in-aid were sanctioned to the Institutions listed below:—

Rs. 4,727.50 to the Gymnastic Federation of India, New Delhi, to cover the deficit on the annual National Gymnastic Championships held at Poona in June, 1959.

Rs. 39,000 to the Badminton Association of India, Bombay, for meeting the tourist class air fare of six players for participation in the International Championship for the Uber Cup held in the U.S.A.

Rs. 17,233 to the Rajasthan State Sports Council, Jaipur, for meeting 75 per cent of the expenditure incurred on conducting coaching camps during May-June, 1959.

Rs. 5,000 to the Dhyani Chand Hockey Tournament Committee, New Delhi, for meeting the deficit in staging the 1959 Hockey Championship for Public Schools.

Rs. 3,000 to the National Rifle Association, India, New Delhi, for the payment of annual rent of land for 1959-60.

Rs. 22,500 to the Indian Hockey Federation, Patiala, for meeting 75% of the expenditure for holding five Zonal Training Camps.

Rs. 1,16,966.68 to the Rajkumari Sports Coaching Scheme, New Delhi, for meeting the expenditure on the scheme during the last quarter of 1959-60.

The 12th meeting of the All-India Council of Sports was held in February, 1960. The following are the important decisions and recommendations of the Council:

(i) The Council agreed to grant recognition to the Chess Federation of India and the Indian Amateur Boxing Federation.

(ii) The Council recommended a grant of Rs. 11,232 or the actual deficit incurred, whichever is less, to the All-India Lawn Tennis Association for the air fare of three players participating in the Wimbledon Championship in 1960. An other grant of Rs. 37,920 was made to the same Association for deputing a Junior Team of four players, accompanied by a Manager, to

the United Kingdom and the Continent during 1960 for acquiring experience in International tennis.

(iii) The Council also recommended a grant of Rs. 30,000 to the Indian Golf Union for deputing a team of four golfers to participate in the World Amateur Team Championship for the Eisenhower Cup to be held in Philadelphia in September, 1960 subject to availability of funds.

The 13th meeting of the All-India Council of Sports was held in April, 1960. The following are some of the important decisions and recommendations:

(a) That the National Institute of Sports should be located at Patiala.

(b) The Council unanimously elected Rajkumari Amrit Kaur as its Vice-President.

(c) The request of the Wrestling Association of India for recognition was approved.

(d) The Council recommended that the following grants may be made:

(i) Amounts not exceeding Rs. 20,000 each to the Andhra Pradesh and Kerala Sports Councils for the purchase of sports equipment, subject to voting by a Committee of the Council.

(ii) To the All-India Lawn Tennis Association for holding the annual Inter-State Junior Championships and a training camp during 1960 to the extent of Rs. 5,000 and 75 per cent of the admissible expenditure respectively.

(iii) Rs. 982. to the Amateur Athletic Federation of India for expenditure incurred on a meet during the visit of an American Track and Field team in April, 1959.

(e) The Council approved in principle the proposal to give financial assistance to the Rajasthan Sports Council to hold a few coaching camps.

Rs. 10,000 was placed at the disposal of the following Centrally Administered Areas for giving financial assistance to Educational Institutions for the purchase of Sports Equipment:—

	Rs.
Delhi	4,000
Tripura	3,000
Manipur	3,000

Scouting and Guiding

Rs. 60,000 (third instalment) was sanctioned in favour of the Bharat Scouts and Guides, National Headquarters, New Delhi, for the construction of their All-India Training centre at Pachmarhi and also another sum of Rs. 45,000. for meeting the organisational and administrative expenses of the National Headquarters for the year 1959-60.

Committee on Coordination and Integration of Physical Education, Recreation and Youth Welfare Schemes

A Committee has been appointed under the Chairmanship of Pandit H.N. Kunzru to evaluate the respective merits of various schemes for physical education, recreation, character building and discipline operating in educational institutions and to recommend measures for developing the most useful of these. A questionnaire for eliciting as much information as possible in order to have a comprehensive picture of the actual working of various schemes, was issued to about 11,000 high/higher secondary schools, colleges and universities in the country. More than two thousand replies have been received.

Physical Education and Recreation

Financial assistance to the following institutions has been given by the Ministry of Education during February—March 1960 for the promotion of physical education and recreation activities:—

- (i) Rs. 16,800 to the K.S.M.Y.M Samiti, Lonavala, (Poona) towards its recurring expenditure.
- (ii) Rs. 51,337 to the indigenous physical cultural institutions in Bombay, Kerala, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and Rajasthan

States for the promotion of Physical Cultural Activities under the Ministry's Scheme of grants to Vyamshalas.

- (iii) Rs. 4.3 lakhs to the Board of Governors Lakshmibai College of Physical Education (Gwalior) to meet the expenditure on the construction work of the college and other recurring and non-recurring expenditure during 1959-60, bringing the total grant sanctioned for this purpose during 1959-60 to Rs. 11.1 lakhs.

The Tenth Meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation was held at New Delhi on 16th April, 1960. Some of the important recommendations of the Board are as follows:—

- (i) A committee constituted by the Ministry of Education in consultation with the Ministry of Health should evaluate the therapeutic value of yogic asanas and suggest ways and means for the scientific development of yogic institutions after visiting them.
- (ii) The Board also reviewed the results of the National Physical Efficiency Drive. It was emphasised that the Drive should be implemented on a more extensive scale and with greater intensity during the coming year.
- (iii) That the colleges of physical education should evaluate the efficacy of the tests under the drive on the basis of the data available. The reports of the colleges of physical education will be placed before a Committee of the Board which will examine the question of modification of the tests, if necessary. Meanwhile the tests will continue throughout the country.
- (iv) Acceptance of the proposal made by Shri P.M. Joseph that India's representatives be deputed to

important international conferences of physical education and recreation.

- (v) That two pilot projects, one urban and one rural, may be undertaken to work on an experimental basis and to decide which recreational activities are of maximum value.

National Physical Efficiency Drive

The National Physical Efficiency Drive was formally launched by the Government of India on a countrywide scale during the second week of February, 1960. With a view to giving adequate publicity to the Drive, cooperation of the Ministries of Information and Broadcasting and Community Development was enlisted. About 50,000 attractive posters in English and Hindi were distributed among the State Governments to help them to give publicity to the Drive. A proposal to prepare a film on the Drive has since been accepted by the Ministry of Education. Rs. 9,700 was also sanctioned by the Ministry of Education to cover expenses incurred on a special function organised by the Ministry at New Delhi with the cooperation of the Director of Education, Delhi, to mark the inauguration of the Drive.

Students' Tours

Rs. 11,446.25 has been paid direct to seven institutions during the period under report for the benefit of 189 students and teachers. Rs. 1,832. has also been paid to the Government of West Bengal for enabling it to disburse grants to eligible educational institutions within its territorial jurisdiction.

Inter-University Youth Festival

A meeting of the representatives of universities in the country was held on 23rd April, 1960. Representatives of 29 universities discussed the arrangements for the VII Inter-University Youth Festival to be held at New Delhi from 25th October to 3rd November, 1960. The next Festival will mark the introduction of a few new items like, Student—poets' Symposium, exhibition

of selected university and college magazines etc.

Bal Bhavan

Rs. 20,000 was sanctioned to the Centre which is a recreational centre for the children of the Capital, towards its normal expenditure.

National Discipline Scheme

The total expenditure on the Scheme during the year 1959-60 amounted to Rs. 14.65 lakhs approximately.

So far 750 instructors are under training and when posted to their schools in July will cover roughly 380 new schools, thus bringing the number of schools under the scheme to about a thousand.

PROPAGATION OF HINDI AND EVOLVING OF TECHNICAL TERMINOLOGY

Hindi Encyclopaedia

Rs. 35,000 has been given to the Nagari Pracharini Sabha, Varanasi, for the preparation of Hindi Encyclopaedia during the quarter under report. This is the ninth instalment out of the total grant of Rs. 7.0 lakhs sanctioned for the purpose.

Reorganisation of Akhil Bharatiya Hindi Mahavidyalaya, Agra

Consequent upon this Ministry's decision to reorganise the Akhil Bharatiya Hindi Mahavidyalaya, Agra—to be named as Kendriya Hindi Shiksha Mahavidyalaya, Agra—the Ministry has set up an autonomous body to manage the affairs of the Mahavidyalaya. The first meeting of the Governing Council of the Mandal was held on 14th April, 1960, to chalk out their further programme.

Appointment of Hindi teachers

Rs. 7,19,992 have been released to non-Hindi speaking States during the quarter under report under the above Centrally sponsored scheme.

Payment of Grants to Hindi Organisations

The following grants have been sanctioned during the period under report:—

<i>Name of Organisation</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Purpose</i>
Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Allahabad	Rs. 10,500	Preparation of English-Hindi Dictionary.
*Andhra University, Waltair	Rs. 2,150	Morphic and phonemic analysis of Telugu language.
*Mysore University, Mysore	Rs. 2,575	Morphic and phonemic analysis of Kanada language.
Shri Shardul Sanskrit Vidyapeeth, Bikaner	Rs. 10,200	Purchase of books for library and furniture.

*Amounts were not actually drawn during the financial year 1959-60.

Preparation of Manuals on the Basis of Terminology Evolved

Manuals on Education (General), Education (Psychology), Commerce and Zoology have been completed and are now under examination. Manual on Medicine has been finalised and is being printed.

Board of Scientific Terminology

Total number of terms evolved up to 31st March, 1960, is 2,24,368 and the total number approved by the Expert Committees up to 15th April, 1960, is 1,23,318.

Translation of Standard Works of University Level into Hindi

The Standing Advisory Committee set up for this purpose met on 9th December, 1959, and made certain recommendations. These have been accepted by the Government and action to implement them has been initiated.

Research Scholarships to the Products of Traditional Sanskrit Pathshalas

A scheme has been formulated to award research scholarships to the students of traditional Sanskrit *Pathshalas*. It has also been decided to institute a prize scheme for producing three standard/modern graded readers in Sanskrit mainly intended for pupils of the middle or lower secondary stage.

Central Hindi Directorate

In pursuance of the decision of the Government of India to promote and propagate Hindi, a "Central Hindi Directorate", of the status of a subordinate office has been set up with effect from 1st March, 1960.

UNESCO ACTIVITIES

Indian National Commission for Unesco

A Committee appointed by the Chairman of the Executive Board of the Indian National Commission for Unesco to review the Constitution of the Indian National Commission met on 10th March, 1960, reviewed the existing Constitution and recommended a number of important changes.

Executive Board of Unesco

The 56th Session of the Executive Board was held at Paris from 4th to 29th April, 1960. Among other items, the Board discussed the draft programme and budget of the General Conference of Unesco to be held in November-December, 1960, in Paris.

World Conference on Adult Education 1960

Unesco is planning to organize a World Conference on Adult Education in Montreal (Canada) from 22nd to 31st August, 1960.

The Government of India have provisionally accepted the invitation. The selection of the participants is now under consideration.

International Seminar on Bilingualism in Education.

An International Seminar on Bilingualism in Education is to be held in the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth (U.K.) from 20th August to 2nd September, 1960 under the auspices of the U.K. National Commission for Unesco. The Indian National Commission has been invited and it is proposed to nominate an Indian scholar from the U.K. to participate in this seminar.

Visit of Unesco Officials and Others to India

Mr. Jacques Havet of Unesco's Department of Cultural Activities visited New Delhi in February 1960. He discussed with the authorities concerned India's role in the implementation of the East-West Major Project, including the establishment of an Associated Institution for the study and preservation of Cultural values in Delhi. Prof. E. Cleland of the Botany Department of the Indiana University, U.S.A. and a member of U.S. National Commission for Unesco, visited Delhi in March, 1960. The Indian National Commission for Unesco arranged meetings between Prof. Cleland and some local members of the Commission.

Unesco Associated Youth Enterprises System

The Indian National Commission has forwarded the following additional proposals to Unesco for inclusion in their system of Associated Youth Enterprises:—

- (1) Socially maladjusted youth (Sponsored by the Andhra Government).
- (2) Youth Documentation and Information Centre for South East Asia (Sponsored by the Indian Organizing Committee for Training Projects in Work Camp methods and Technique in South-East Asia, New Delhi).

Unesco has made some suggestions in connection with the first proposal with a view to making it eligible for inclusion in the

system. These suggestions have been brought to the notice of Andhra Pradesh Government for their consideration.

Aid to the Asian Theatre Institute under Unesco's Participation Programme.

Unesco has agreed to give the following aid to the above Institute: Equipment up to the value of \$2,000; Financial aid of \$500 for holding a meeting of experts in dramatic art; Aid upto an amount not exceeding \$7,500 for four study grants.

Unesco Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance for 1960-61 and 1961-62.

The U.N. Expanded Technical Assistance Programme will henceforth be formulated on a biennial basis. The proposals for 1961-62 have been sent to the Ministry of Finance (Department of Economic Affairs) by the end of May, 1960. The parties concerned have been addressed in the matter and a coordinated request based on their replies will be transmitted to the authorities through the Department of Economic Affairs.

Encyclopaedia in Filmed Form

The Unesco has asked for information pertaining to films made of great men, distinguished in Education, Science and Culture with a view to preparing an Encyclopaedia in a filmed form. The information is being collected in consultation with the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting.

International Catalogue of Music Films

At the instance of Unesco, the International Music Council, Paris, has undertaken a project for the preparation of a Catalogue which will give up to date information in respect of films related to music education prepared in various countries. The main object of this project is to promote education through films. The Council has sought information concerning the titles of selected films for screening by the Board to be set up by the Council in collaboration with Unesco. The information is being collected in consultation with the authorities concerned.

Unesco Travel Grants

Under the Major Project on the Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values, Unesco proposes to award during

1960 Educational Leader Grants and Regional Cultural Grants to a number of scholars from the U.K., Austria, Denmark, Argentina, Sweden and Japan. Their schedules include visits to India and necessary arrangements are being made for their placement.

Unesco Fellowship

Under Participation/Technical Programme, Unesco has awarded fellowships to the nationals of Japan, Indonesia and Burma for study and research work in selected fields. These awards envisage visits to a number of countries, including India. Unesco's request for their placement at appropriate institutions etc. is receiving attention.

SCHOLARSHIPS

FOR STUDIES ABROAD

I. Government of India Schemes

Partial Financial Assistance (Loans) Scheme

Applications for partial financial assistance from 18 students were received. Loans amounting to Rs. 4,113.13 have been sanctioned. Rs. 1,931.66 have been recovered from students who were given loans in the past.

Programme for Exchange of Scholars between India and Rumania, 1960-61.

Selections for two scholarships are being finalised.

Union Territories Overseas Scholarship, 1960-61.

Selection for one scholarship is being finalised.

II. Awards made by Foreign Governments/International Organisations/Institutions.

Austrian Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of ten scholarships (to be awarded on a world wide competition) is under consideration.

British Council Scholarships, 1960-61

Selections for ten scholarships are being finalised.

Canadian Council Fellowships, 1960-61

Selections are being finalised.

Danish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Selections for two scholarships are in progress.

French Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Applications for nine scholarships have been invited by 15-5-1960.

Imperial Relations Trust (London University, Institute of Education) Fellowships, 1960-61.

Applications for two Fellowships have been received and are under consideration.

Israeli Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer is under consideration.

United Arab Republic Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of two scholarships is under consideration.

U.N. Social Welfare Fellowships/Scholarships Programme, 1960-61.

Selections for five Fellowships are in progress.

Unesco Fellowship for Study of Journalism, 1960-61.

The offer of one scholarship is under consideration.

Unesco Fellowship for Production of Reading Material for Neo-Literates, 1960-61.

The offer of one scholarship is under consideration.

Swedish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of two scholarships is under consideration.

Spanish Government Scholarship, 1960-61

The offer of one scholarship is under consideration.

Turkish Government Scholarship, 1960-61

The offer of one scholarship is under consideration.

FOR STUDIES IN INDIA

For Foreign Nationals

Government of India Schemes

General Scholarships Scheme, 1960-61

Twelve more candidates have been selected bringing the total to 118; selections for the remaining 22 scholarships have yet to be made.

Scholarships to Bhutanese Students, 1960-61

(i) The ten Bhutanese students who have been awarded scholarships for 'School Study' have joined their institutions.

(ii) Recommendations for six scholarships for Degree/Diploma courses are awaited from the Sikkimese Government.

Scholarships/Fellowships unoffered by Unesco

Arrangements for study tour/observation programmes for a national each from Belgium, Argentine, New Zealand, Switzerland, Norway and Japan are being made.

For Indian Nationals

Post-Matric Merit Scholarships Scheme, 1959-60.

Candidates for the remaining three scholarships have been selected bringing the total to 200.

Scholarships for Higher Studies in Hindi for Students from non-Hindi Speaking States, 1959-60.

Candidates for the remaining 43 scholarships have been selected bringing the total to 110.

EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION AND PUBLICATIONS

During the quarter ending 30th April, 1960, 2,661 receipts including 1,826 enquiries on facilities available in fields of Education in India and Abroad were dealt with. 412 persons visited the Section for various informative notes and reference to the Catalogues/Calendars on the Universities/Institutions of India and abroad in the Information Library. Necessary information and guidance was given to them.

Information on 11 items on different subjects of educational interest was collected and compiled during the period under review.

2,799 press-cuttings received from the Press Information Bureau were circulated to the various Divisions/Officers of the Ministry.

Publications

The following publications have been brought out during the period under Report :

1. Summary of Activities: Ministry of Education 1959-60 (English).
2. Summary of Activities: Ministry of Education 1959-60 (Hindi).
3. Annual Report of the Ministry of Education 1959-60 (English).
4. Annual Report of the Ministry of Education 1959-60 (Hindi).
5. Report of the National Service Committee 1959-60.
6. Report of the Second National Seminar on Basic Education (Hindi).
7. National Awards for Teachers 1959-60 : Citations.
8. Youth—Spring 1960 issue.
9. An Appraisal of Rural Higher Education and a Projected Programme for the Rural Institute by J.D. Dawson.
10. Gandhiji's Experiments in Education by T.S. Avinashilingam.
11. The Education Quarterly—Spring 1960 issue.

1,261 copies of publications were sold at the casual sales depot of the Ministry during the period under report.

Educational Statistics

During the quarter under report, the statistics of nine States and seven Universities were scrutinised and discrepancies pointed out wherever necessary. Besides, the statistics of five Centrally Administered Areas were checked.

In pursuance of the policy of improving the professional competence of the staff charged with the collection and compilation of educational statistics in the States and Universities and to ensure a regular and timely flow of the data from these sources to the centre, officials were deputed to regional training courses organised at Gauhati, Patna and Mysore by the Governments of Assam and Bihar and the University of Mysore respectively. The course at Gauhati was attended by officials from N.E.F.A., Manipur, Tripura and N.H.T.A. also.

Besides, the section organised the tenth In-Service Training Course in Statistics at New Delhi from 4th April to 29th April,

1960. 13 trainees from ten universities participated in the course.

The Section has undertaken a survey for working out the cost to a student for pursuing the first degree course in some selected subjects of general and professional education. Necessary questionnaire was prepared and issued to more than 600 institutions.

During the period, "Report on Delinquent Children and Juvenile Offenders, 1955" and "Education in Universities in India, 1956-57", were brought out.

52 statistical enquiries were attended to during the quarter.

NATIONAL ARCHIVES OF INDIA

Acquisition

48 authenticated copies of Bills of States assented to by the President, one volume of records, 850 files and 124 reels of microfilm were received. 182 books, manuscripts and documents were accessioned and 2,060 periodicals etc. registered.

Repairs and Rehabilitation

Eight volumes of the book entitled "the History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" were bound and the repairs and binding of a Persian manuscript on Ladakh and repairs of 95 letters of Gandhiji were carried out.

Technical Service and Advisory Work

Photo-duplication service was rendered, among others, to the Italian Embassy, the Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, the office of the Surveyor General, the International Academy of Indian Culture, the New York Public Library, the Indian School for International Studies, the Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Andaman, Nicobar Islands, and Shri Ajmal Khan.

Information on preservation and rehabilitation of records, free service in the National Archives of India for repair and preservation of ancient manuscripts of national importance, book-binding technique in the Mughal period, fumigation of records, protection of library-books from silver-fish and specifications of thymol fumigation chamber was supplied to different individuals and offices.

Photo Duplication

The microfilming of the series "Home Revenue Proceedings" was continued and

50,475 exposures were made. The microfilming of rare and precious manuscripts from the Raza Library, Rampur, was also continued. Besides 7,233 enlarged prints were prepared and 93 reels of microfilm checked.

Publications

Progress was made in printing volumes IV, VI and XV of the Fort-William-India House Correspondence, Part I of the volume on "Selections from Educational Records" Volume XI of the *Indian Archives*, the Annual Report of the National Archives of India for the year 1958 and the descriptive list of the Mutiny papers, editing the text of volume XIV of the Fort-William-India House Correspondence and revising the typescript of volume XI (1794-95) calendaring volume XII (1796-97) of the Calendar of Persian Correspondence. The brochure entitled "Indian Seals" was printed off. 50 printed copies of Volume IX of the Fort-William-India House Correspondence and 100 printed copies of the volume on Browne Correspondence were received from the press. The compilation of the Annual Report of the National Archives of India for the year 1959 was completed while that of the Handbook of Indian Archival Repositories was taken up. Preparation of an index to the Foreign and Political Departments's records (1781-83) was continued. The printing of the "Bulletin of Research Theses and Dissertations" was started.

Indian Historical Records Commission

Part II of volume XXXV of the proceedings of the Indian Historical Records Commission was printed and distributed to the members of the Commission.

The thirty-fifth session of the Indian Historical Records Commission was held at Vigyan Bhavan, New Delhi. on the 4th-5th February, 1960.

The Director of Archives inspected the records of the Accountant General, Rajasthan, Jaipur, and visited the Bombay, Santiniketan, Calcutta and Aligarh Universities in connection with the meetings of the Manuscript Committee of the University Grants Commission.

Three Views on Indiscipline

A SYMPOSIUM

Indiscipline has currently become an oft-discussed theme in the consideration of the educational situation in the country. One hopes that this subject would soon cease to be an item on the agenda. In what follows, a Director of Studies of a university, a Principal of a school, both with years of contact with the student community to their credit, and a student of Delhi, give their views on the unrest prevailing in the student-world. They lay bare the facts of the situation, uncover some of the causes and suggest possible remedies. T.K.N. Menon stresses the importance of counselling bodies in universities to give intelligent guidance to our students, particularly in the use of their time outside the class room. M.M. Khan gives an account of the day-to-day life of an average student while N.K. Jha makes the point that a leaf could be taken out of the book of those educational institutions where there is no indiscipline. The contributions have been written with sympathy and understanding and should be of interest to our teachers and students. A house of learning, school or college or university should have an ethos of its own to win the voluntary love and reverence of all seekers of knowledge. It is only years of endeavour and combined endeavour at that, of teacher, student and society that will produce the needed atmosphere to which one of our contributors has referred.

—EDITOR

I

THE ACADEMIC DISQUIET that prevails at present in our universities as a result of student indiscipline is a phenomenon that cannot escape the notice of even the casual observer of university life in India. Student strikes at the slightest of provocations, fall in standards of students' achievement, the absence of any norm for student conduct and behaviour and the easy susceptibility of students to be carried away by the false propaganda of political parties and even the anti-social elements in the country—all these are becoming common features of student life in our country. Teachers and educational administrators are very conscious of the power that the student world wields, and what is alarming is that many of them

fight shy of decrying student conduct and behaviour which is below par because they are afraid of getting into trouble with this powerful body. When universities first got started in Europe during the Middle Ages, a number of them like the Universities of Bologna and Pressburg went under the control of students who appointed rectors and teachers and carried on university administration. If the rot that has set in our universities is not cleaned up without any further delay, the time will not be distant when our students will clamour for power to run the universities as their counterparts did in Europe during the Middle Ages.

Don't Blame the Student

We are used to blaming the student for all his indisciplined behaviour whether such behaviour is motivated by conscious or unconscious urges. In the final analysis we cannot deny that their behaviour is conditioned by a number of factors that are not their making. Student unrest is symptomatic of the world situation today. Look at the recent student upsurge in South Korea and Turkey and the similar phenomenon that happened in Egypt and Burma sometime earlier. The old values and the influence of the State, the family and religion got shattered as a consequence of the Second World War, and new values have not as yet got rooted in the soil. In our own country, students saw crumbling of authority when the mighty British Government vacated their rule in India and when a large number of Indian princes—all symbols of authority and power—had to leave their power and their position.

Have our universities reacted to the new situation that has arisen in our country and have they adjusted themselves to the needs of the times and of the students that they are admitting in increasing numbers year after year? Why is it that the frustrated constitute the major segment of the present-day students in our universities? Why should the best among the nation's youth who are supposed to enter the portals of institutions of higher learning be frustrated?

T. K. N. MENON, B.A. (Hons.), Dip. Edn. (Leeds and Berlin), M.A. Edn. (Leeds), Director of Studies, M.S. University of Baroda, Baroda

Why should youth in general be frustrated because, as the poet sings,

"How beautiful is youth, how bright it shines,

With its illusions, aspirations, dreams !"

The main causes of the frustration of our youth who inhabit our universities are : (1) Indiscriminate admissions, (2) inadequate education after admission and (3) an antiquated, inadequate and unreliable examination at the end of university education. These three factors demand scrutiny in the context of not only our present-day national life and its requirements but also modern educational theory and practice.

Indiscriminate Admission

The indiscriminate admission of students made by universities and colleges without any regard to their capacity to profit by advanced courses of studies is a problem that raises the fundamental issue *viz.* what should be the role of our universities ? Dr. C. D. Deshmukh, Chairman of our University Grants Commission raised this issue in his inaugural address to a Conference of Educational Administrators held in Delhi in 1957. At one extreme end were those who believed that the function of the university was the training of the "elite by an elite"; at the other end were those who believed that universities should serve all people who could benefit from some kind of higher education. The United States of America represents the latter point of view, and most of the European countries, the former. At one end of the scale is the U.S.A. where per million of population, the number of young persons at the University is over 15,000 and at the other end is the U.K. where the corresponding number is approximately 2,000. It is alarming that in spite of our poor resources, distressing illiteracy, India is also sending 2,000 students to her universities for every million of her population. A recent study sponsored by the writer in the Baroda University has revealed that candidates who secured less than 50% marks at the S.S.C. Examination and joined science or technological courses in the university have not been able to complete the courses successfully. Why then should such misguided youth be admitted

to these courses because frustration is their inevitable reward in the end? If universities want to educate only those who have the intellectual capacity and scholastic achievements to succeed in their studies and if they want to give their students the best motivation that comes from guaranteed employment and not an uncertain future, they will be well advised to follow the counsel of Dr. Deshmukh who at the Conference of University Administrators said : "Having regard to the fact that we shall be endeavouring to strain to the utmost limit our total resources in an all-out effort to develop the national economy and that there will be no slacks left or decorative fringes or border embroideries, I have no doubt myself that we shall have to restrict university education by and large to the university educated men and women that the country will be needing from time to time and that as regards the rest, the nation will have done its duty by expanding and extending as well as diversifying secondary education, especially of a technical character". Since our national economy will not permit us to provide a variety of courses to suit all kinds of talents and even low levels of talents as is done by the universities in the U.S.A., the best we can aspire to in the foreseeable future is to provide university education for only the gifted who are able to go successfully through the comparatively fewer courses of study that we are able to provide. Such a policy alone can prevent the frustration that becomes the lot of a large number of students because of their inability to cope up with their studies.

Defective Instruction and Examinations

Restricted admission and right admission of students by themselves will not lift the academic disquiet and student indiscipline that have come to stay in our universities. Admission of students is only the first step in the long journey of university education which spreads out in instruction and studies and culminates at the final examination. If wrong admissions sow the seeds of student unrest and indiscipline, the limitations of our programme of instruction and studies, and the wastage inherent in our examination system cause this disturbance and disquiet to grow and assume alarming proportions.

Before considering the problem of university programmes of instruction and studies, let us look at the problem of university examinations. The Indian University Education Commission were convinced that if they had to suggest *one single reform* in Indian university education, it should be that of examinations. The colossal wastage, the frustration, the anti-social attitude caused through failures at our public examinations were stressed by the late Dr. J. C. Ghosh in his address at a symposium organised in connection with the Calcutta University Centenary Celebrations in 1957. Dr. Ghosh said : "I wish to draw your pointed attention to the colossal waste of time and money inherent in a system (of education) dominated more by external examinations than by good teaching. More than 50% of our students fail at each of these examinations. It is estimated that out of ten lakhs who are appearing at the matriculation examination this year, five lakhs will fail and four lakhs will appear at the Intermediate examination two years hence; two lakhs will again fail there and possibly one lakh will finally come out successful at the degree levels.

The frustration, the financial loss, the anti-social attitude which such failures create are taken as a matter of course. Such is the benumbing influence of an evil system which has degenerated into a mechanical contrivance for testing short-lived memory."

The main defects of our examination system are well-known. First of all, the examination uses only the essay type of questions which suffer from a high degree of subjectivity. Secondly a student's educational progress and scholastic achievement are judged only through the marks that he gets at the final examination. His progress as revealed by the day-to-day work is ignored. And thirdly we are adopting a system of awarding numerical marks which has the absurd assumption that the mind is so sensitive as to be able to mark on a 100-point scale, and what is worse that the minds of a number of examiners have the same capacity to mark in a standardised pattern on this 100-point scale. It is remarkable that the few universities in India which are working on a progressive programme of examination reform to mitigate some of

the above defects are experiencing less of student unrest and indiscipline. The University Grants Commission has taken on hand the problem of examination reform with the help of an expert committee. The Commission and its expert committee had also the advantage of advice from the well-known examination expert, Dr. Benjamin Bloom of the University of Chicago whose approach to the problem of examination reform provides a meaning and purpose to university instruction which are today denied to university students. Dr. Bloom's thesis is that we should first make clear the objectives of teaching a subject and establish the priorities of these objectives. The second step is to provide learning situations to achieve the objectives in the order of their importance and the last phase of this continuous educational process should be the examination which should have the definite purpose of finding out how far the objectives have been realised. This approach to examination reform will give meaning to the instruction imparted by the teacher and the learning that is expected of the student. It is the lack of purpose and meaning of university instruction that leaves the student without pilot or rudder and makes him resort to unwholesome activities to satisfy his urge for importance that his studies do not at present provide.

From the above it will be clear that besides an unreliable and uncertain examination, the inadequate instruction in our universities is another major cause of student unrest and indiscipline. In the name of specialization, university courses have gone in for fragmentation of knowledge. However strong the claims of specialization, our young men and women have to be educated for life and the needs of the present-day crisis of modern culture makes the integrated approach to instruction imperative. The various subjects taught in the university have to be presented in an integrated and liberal way so that the student may be able to appreciate intelligently his role in the modern world, a world which is not only physical, but also social and cultural, a world of facts as well as values. The need of this general education approach to undergraduate courses of studies to meet the needs of the times has not been sufficiently

appreciated by our universities. This is not all. The institutions of higher learning and student enrolment have increased beyond limits in recent times, and the quality of accommodation, equipment, staffing, halls of residence and centres for recreation and reading have not kept pace with this expansion. The starting of colleges and sometimes universities to satisfy regional rivalries and parochial passions has added to the malady. Though the present work that the University Grants Commission is doing to maintain proper standards of staff, accommodation, equipment and other facilities is substantial, the problem that faces them on this front is colossal.

Guidance and Counselling

To the prescription of control of admissions and improvement of instruction and examinations must be added another indispensable item which will go a long way in getting rid of the ugly phenomenon of student unrest and indiscipline in India. There is the urgent need of setting up a proper and dynamic organisation for advising, guiding and counselling of students in all our institutions of higher learning. Universities have given little thought to the psychological factors that influence the adjustment or maladjustment of adolescents who constitute our student population. This most difficult stage of development described by the psychologist as the age of "storm and stress", "moods and mysteries" and "problems and perplexities" have serious difficulties of emotional, educational, occupational and social adjustments. Universities should set up students' counselling centres with specialists to advise, guide and counsel. The values of such centres are many; perhaps an illustration may bring out one of their many phases of work. Dr. Benjamin Bloom's recent study of our examination system made in the context of his advice to the University Grants Commission revealed that for every three hours of study that a student in the U.S.A. or the U.K. has to do outside the classroom, his Indian counterpart does only just an hour's study. This shows that time is hanging on our students without anyone to advise them as to what they should do, and if they make a nuisance of themselves, it is but inevitable. What they need is expert and

constant advice on all their problems—educational, emotional, occupational and social. Such advice is provided by the Student Counselling Services in the universities abroad, particularly in those in the U.S.A. These agencies advise students on their problems of admission, choice of courses of studies; they guide them in their occupational choice, in going through courses and training for vocations and professions, in analysing of abilities, interests and attitudes required for various vocations and professions; they also counsel students on their personal and personality problems. Thus the students come to have a better understanding of themselves, their abilities, their interests, their problems and their values, they are helped to define goals and work their way to achieve these goals. Adolescent energy is like the overflow of a mighty river, it irrigates and fertilises life's vast territories. The whole problem of university education is to long circuit this energy to useful channels. Only a competent students' Counselling Service working in close co-operation with university administration and teaching staff can do this.

The important phenomenon of student unrest and indiscipline in Indian universities may be due to a number of causes, but it will be clear from the foregoing analysis that the main cause of this malady lies primarily with university teachers and university administration. It is time that they realised along with Shakespeare's Cassius that "the fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars but in ourselves". Therefore the cure lies primarily with them. First and foremost, admissions to universities should be restricted to those who have the mental calibre and scholastic achievement to cope with the courses of studies. Secondly our examinations should be reformed and integrated intimately into the total educational process. The educational process itself should be improved with better staff, accommodation, equipment and other educational facilities. And lastly the student should be advised, guided and counselled by a competent expert agency on his curricular, personal and occupational problems. From the look of things the present social order is not in a mood to set up norms for the proper conduct and behaviour of individuals;

we may be justified more in looking forward to our universities to turn out well-adjusted young men and women who in course of time will improve the social order and set

it on proper norms. Indiscipline among university students, the cream of our youth, the nation's priceless treasure will then be a story of the past.

II

WHY IS THE STUDENT COMMUNITY dissatisfied with its lot ? Why is an average Indian youth frustrated today ? Why are demonstrations of student unrest more apparent these days than ever before ? These are some of the pertinent questions which face every student, every teacher and every parent today.

It is not only in the Indian Universities that the problem of student indiscipline has assumed serious proportions. Recent events in other countries like Turkey, South Korea and Japan have also shown a dangerous growth of this tendency. There have been attempts before towards curbing this malaise among our youth. But as the poet says :

مرض بترهتا گیا جوں جوں دوا کی
"the malady went on increasing with every remedy". As the younger generation of today is the architect of future India, it is time that our leaders and educationists gave a serious thought to the problem and found out a remedy before the disease becomes incurable.

The causes of student indiscipline are many and the approaches to this problem also are many-sided. In this article an attempt has been made to look at the problem from a student's point of view. As only a wearer knows where the shoe pinches him, and as only a patient knows where the body actually aches, so also a student is in a better position to say why he is indisciplined.

Life of An Average Student

What is the life of an average Indian student today ? His parents are not so well-educated as they want him to be. He is admitted to a Municipal Primary School and gets entry into a Secondary School as a matter of course. The choice of school is determined mostly by its proximity to his home and the selection of subjects de-

pends on what the school has to offer to him. With some difficulty he is able to get through his High or Higher Secondary Examination. Then the real difficulty starts. He has to join a college. There is a great rush on admissions. He only has a second division. Much as he wants to go in for technical education, admission to an engineering or medical college is out of the question. Either he belongs to poor parents who cannot afford these costly studies, or he offered arts subjects in the Secondary School and therefore cannot be accepted into technical streams. Or, even if his parents are well-to-do and planned a technical course for him, he abhors being an engineer or a doctor. He has an inclination towards art or music. At last he is admitted to the degree class only to find himself a square peg in a round hole. He goes to his classes just to complete his attendance. There also an arrangement exists between him and a friend whereby if any one of them reaches the classroom, *both* would be *present*. What does he do during the college time when he is proxied by his friend ? Perhaps he is enjoying a foreign movie running in the town at reduced rates in the noon shows. Or he may be gossiping in a costly restaurant over a cup of coffee.

The college time is over and now he has to return home. The atmosphere at home is not conducive to study. He goes out again but does not know what to do. He plays no game. The evening is, therefore passed in the house of a friend whose father is about to contest a municipal election. His friend promises him free food and lodging till the date of the election. The

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father, is an influential fellow. If he is returned in the election, he would not only manage to have our student sent through but also get him through the examination.

The election is over but not the examination. Fortunately the attendance is *complete*. But will he get through the examination? He missed quite a few lectures. Of those which he attended, he followed very few. But then, let the examination be over. Some preparations for success can be made afterwards also! After all half of the examiners are internal. As to the external papers, well, there are other means also! The examination has to be got through by hook or by crook, by persuasion or by intimidation, by hard work or by hard word.

At last the examination is finished. Every thing went through smoothly except in one paper which was rather hard and where a walk-out had to be resorted to. In fact the paper was not so hard, but the teacher used to give attendance instead of lectures on the subject. A general strike therefore became necessary to have a re-examination in that paper.

After the Examination

The result is out. Everybody is happy that our friend has got a second division. The parents are happy that their investment has not been a waste. Congratulations are pouring in; parties are being thrown. Now the boy should earn something. He looks at the "Wanted" column in the newspaper daily. He is either not qualified for the posts that he wants, or does not want the posts for which he thinks he is qualified. Ultimately he decides to appear in the examination for All-India services. He works very hard for the competition but unfortunately he is not even called for the interview. He takes a second chance, works harder and with greater determination. The interview call comes but not the appointment letter. He is disappointed. "Am I so useless and unwanted"? he thinks. Someone advises him to apply for lower posts. But he is 25 by now and would not be accepted by Government even for a clerical job. He begins to feel that he is a burden on his parents, on his society, on everything around him. He wants to get married and settle down independently. He therefore comes

down to the level of "any post anywhere", goes in search of a job from person to person, office to office and factory to factory. But no one would accept "a raw hand" that he is.

He wonders, of what use his education has been and what kind of economic prosperity his country is planning for. He develops disgust against society, his Government and his country. He joins undesirable political parties or becomes a tool in the hands of anti-social elements. Cheating, abusing, stealing, etc., become his hobbies, and all his energy and intelligence are channelised towards these. Having developed these forms of indiscipline in his college days, he could have been given a chance to shake them off. But society is not kind to him and now he becomes indiscipline personified.

This in short is the life-sketch of an average Indian youth. There are, of course, exceptions to our story for better or for worse. If there are instances of murders by students, there is a blind student also who has recently topped the list of the successful candidates in M.A. (Philosophy) Examination of a university. If there are principals who have beaten the teachers of their college on grounds of party-politics, there are principals who have laid down their lives for the maintenance of their integrity and academic standards.

Tripartite Cooperation

The general picture, however, is very bleak. It is for our educationists and leaders to find out ways to improve the situation. As the problem has many facets, a sort of tripartite cooperation among the parent, the teacher and the Government is necessary for a proper solution of this ugly problem. The parent has to seek the necessary educational and vocational guidance for the child in addition to his duty to develop the child into the right kind of adult. The teacher has to teach honestly and has to be free from all politics. The college has to be not only a temple of learning but has also to provide facilities for extra-curricular activities. It is the duty of a National Government to assist the institutions, parents and teachers to make of the Indian student an evolved, cultivated person, who would be an asset to the country.

III

INDISCIPLINE AMONG STUDENTS has of late become almost an epidemic. The problem of student indiscipline in the country has at the present moment assumed such gigantic proportions that it has become a matter of national concern. Time has come for all sensible men to put their heads together and find out a way of combating the prevailing malady.

Specimens of Indiscipline

The acts of indiscipline, as exhibited by students may be classified into two categories:—

(A) Individual.

(B) Group.

Examples of individual indiscipline are late coming, truancy, scribbling, spitting indiscriminately and throwing rubbers on road, jay-walking; lying, cheating, stealing, abusing and beating fellow-students, chewing of betel leaves and smoking and using unfair means in the examination. Group Indiscipline may consist of noisy behaviour in classroom, disorderly dispersal at the end of school hours, destruction of school properties, violation of the rules of hostel during study hours, gang-behaviour, fights, and quarrels, rowdism in the play-ground, within the circus campus, at the cinema gate and at public meetings, organised help to examinees at public examination through loud speakers, ticketless travelling and assaulting of ticket checkers, bus conductors and bus drivers, molesting invigilators during examination and resorting to strikes when their demands are not met, etc.

Causes of Indiscipline

This atmosphere of indiscipline among our students is but a reflection of adult indiscipline in the other spheres of our national life. A school or a college is a small community within a larger one and the attitudes, values, modes of behaviour, diffidence and frustrations that are prevalent in the outer and larger life of the nation are bound to be reflected in these institutions too. So indiscipline among students is largely due to basic defects in the community itself.

The misuse and exploitation of students by political parties for their own interest is another reason for the prevalent student unrest.

Further the fall in the standard of discipline has been to a great extent due to the poor quality of teachers who have adopted the teaching profession much against their wishes, for lack of anything better to do. Present day teachers find it very difficult to exercise any influence on their students because most of the teachers have no interest in their work or the aptitude to teach, or sympathy with the pupils in their charge. That there are noble exceptions does not make any material difference to the situation. Experience shows that a teacher who is inspired and can communicate the joy of knowledge to the taught cannot fail to win the esteem of the student community.

But even able men in the teaching profession are up against the abnormal rise in the number of students in teaching institutions. Besides, majority of students come from culturally, economically, intellectually and socially backward families living in uncongenial environments. Then, there is the outmoded examination system and so on.

Remedial Measures

In effectively tackling the problem of student indiscipline, four agencies can help—the community, parents, administrative authorities of educational institutions and finally the teachers. Whatever scheme is adopted to weld the student community into a disciplined unit of our national life, it should have the closest integration between these four agencies. Between the school and the community there should be two way traffic marked by mutual understanding and cooperation. The heads of institutions and other administrative authorities vested with the responsibility of running schools and colleges should be firm in dealing with cases

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of gross indiscipline. Any weakness in this respect will be only an encouragement to student to flout law and order. It is true that a good deal of sympathy is required in dealing with young students with their generous enthusiasms, but this should not mean that anti-social behaviour or law breaking should be condoned.

The key person on whom falls the major responsibility for the growth and development of our students is the teacher who is in day-to-day contact with them. As is the teacher, so is the student. Not only should the teachers themselves follow a high standard of conduct but also they should *seem* to do so for, students constantly watch them. After all whether it is a matter of training a student or training one's own young children, the effective weapon is not so much preaching or laying down the law but *example* which exercises a subtle influence.

If would help considerably if more serious attention were given to provision of games, entertainment, etc., within the campus of colleges and universities.

Schemes to develop the aesthetic sense of pupils should be introduced and the encouragement should be given to them to express their talents in art, drama, music etc.

The most important thing in an educational institution is atmosphere. Many of the famous educational institutions both here and abroad derive their reputation from the atmosphere prevailing in them. This is a very subtle thing which is produced by the collective effort of teacher and taught through a number of years. There are institutions in India where student indiscipline is unknown, a point which sometimes, escapes us. It would be worthwhile, if, for a change, we found out the reasons for the absence of indiscipline in such institutions. We would then be getting nearer a solution of the problem. Our colleges and universities should produce in our students a feeling of belonging. As the Education Minister stated recently "the problem of discipline is a human problem and it can be solved only in a human way."

Santiniketan

Santiniketan was founded by Gurudev Rabindra Nath Tagore in 1901. It had a small beginning with hardly four or five students on its role. Now the institution has developed into a university called Viswa Bharati. The meaning of Viswa Bharati is "Where the world meets" and Santiniketan means "Abode of Peace".

The poet wanted to establish an institution where pupils from various parts of the world would come and study eastern culture. Besides, he wanted to keep it aloof and apart from the city atmosphere. We have our classes under the trees because Gurudev did not like to imprison the young learners within the four-walls of a classroom. By having classes in the open air, we are in close contact with nature. The seasonal festivals are part and parcel of the life at Santiniketan. For instance, in spring we observe "Vasanta Utsava" in monsoon "Varsha Mangla" and so on.

We have got classes in the morning for four hours and in the afternoon for two hours. We have facilities to learn various foreign languages such as German, French, Chinese, Russian, Tibetan etc. We meet foreigners in the course of our studies.

(Continued at page 158)

Strengthening Science Education in India

WE LIVE IN A SCIENTIFIC AGE and the progress of our society—both economic and cultural—depends on Science. Whether we like it or not we are in the midst of a technological civilization founded upon science—the civilization that will rise or fall as science education prospers or fails. This advancement of technology has to be supported by a continuous stream of new scientific knowledge, for which there must be a continued supply of competent scientists. The blunt truth therefore is, that we must have more scientists and engineers and more people who understand what science is about. It is only thus, that we can keep up in the race with the more advanced countries of the world and also help to raise the living standards of our people.

High Priority to Science

This is the argument in favour of necessity and simply states the case for more of one sort of education and less of another. In other words, it assigns higher priority to the teaching of science in schools. Public opinion must face the fact that in the march for progress, old philosophies and social structures which fail to adapt themselves to the changing times will be out-moded and with them the countries and the civilisation they represent. Adaptation is necessary not only for survival but also to retain cultures which might otherwise disappear in the wake of conservatism. An individual to be called a modern man signifies something more than the mere fact that he happened to be born at a date "that left him no alternative but to live out his years in the vicinity of the 20th century". Rather, to be called a modern man in a full and meaningful sense implies that a person has felt in the depths of his being the impact of the basic and characteristic problems of the modern age—an age of science and technology.

No country can claim to have a perfect educational system. In some ways, Russian and American educationists are both more acutely dissatisfied with their own than we are, otherwise they would not have made such major changes in the pattern of

their school curriculum in recent years. From the point of view of educational strategy, the Russians seem to have judged the situation more sensibly and exhibited deeper insight into the scientific revolution.

The need for shaping and re-shaping the national scientific policy in U.S.A. was reflected in the Report of the President's Science Advisory Committee on "Strengthening American Science". While releasing this report towards the end of 1958, President Eisenhower stated "In calling particular attention to the conclusion of the Science Advisory Committee that the task of further strengthening U.S. Science is so broad that the Government, the Industry, the Universities, the Foundations and the individuals all have an essential role to play. The future growth and strength of the American Science will depend upon the efforts of all these parts of our national community if we were to rise to the demands of our times".

If the urgency is so acute in the case of a leading country in the world, one can imagine the importance of constant vigil on the part of the less advanced though, ambitious nations who wish to make up the leeway in their progress as rapidly as possible. While introducing reforms in Science Education in our country, it should be worthwhile to take note of the experiments which the Western industrialised States have already tried, without giving the impression that we are borrowing ideas wholesale and accepting conclusions without careful scrutiny in the light of our own experience. We must remember that anthropological research indicates that "institutions cannot be transferred wholesale from one society to other".

One of the dailies of New Delhi while commenting on the question of the appointment of a Science Commission stated the problem of education reform thus:—"So far as the scientific education beyond the school level is concerned, the University Grants Commission has already begun a series of inquiries. It has appointed Review Committees with very wide terms of

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reference", and so far as school education is concerned "the facilities for the teaching of science subjects are shockingly poor.... As to teaching standards, the authorities concerned know only too well that they are deplorably low. The methods of teaching used in our schools are unimaginative, that in the majority of cases a student's interest in studies is swiftly and permanently killed. Things are learnt by rote with the sole purpose of passing examinations—examinations which mainly test the student's memory but which almost never test his ability to think for himself and analyse a given set of data. The known defects suggest their own remedies. The School need to be better equipped and not only in terms of laboratories. The teaching staff has to be strengthened both in numbers and in quality. The examination system needs to be drastically altered so that it ceases to kill the will to learn".

The items which need immediate and serious attention of the reformer are :—

1. *Revision of the science curriculum* including improvements in the mode of instruction and the way in which Science Education is imparted.
2. *Increasing physical facilities* in the form of laboratory space, scientific equipment and library books etc.
3. *The availability of quality teachers* and the means by which personnel in teaching profession can keep close contact with the newer developments in their subjects.
4. *Attracting suitable students* with aptitude and ability for taking up a scientific career or in other words hunt for science talent.

Curricular Reform

Science is developing so fast at present that there should be a permanent body or a Research Institute constantly reviewing the syllabi, preparing new material as educational aids, revising textbooks and devising new, cheap and economical equipment for laboratory experiments. Such an institute should carry a relentless battle against complacency and conduct research striving for further improvement in every sphere of school science education. It is a matter of great satisfaction

that the Government of India has under contemplation the establishment of such an institution during the Third Five-Year Plan.

Since the early years of the 20th century, the natural sciences have undergone two distinct and consequential changes. First the sciences themselves have grown enormously, both in techniques and quality. Next, science has become inter-woven with our daily life. A man whether he is aware of it or not, lives out his life in constant association with the methods of scientific research and the consequences of scientific research. Scientists and educators are aware that this altered state of affairs is inadequately represented in secondary education and as a consequence, in higher education. There have been several piecemeal re-constructions in the structure of science education in the past but these have failed to achieve their purpose. A new structure now is necessary and it must be designed from the ground up.

The syllabus in Physics for example, is built around Newtonian mechanics, which had ruled physics for more than two centuries. In the years that have passed, physics has spread its roots much wider and borne unimaginable results. The Quantum theory and relativity were postulated and developed, wave mechanics came into being and recreated the physicists basic outlook, attention shifted from the particle to the atom, then to the nucleus and now to the sub-nucleus. Newtonian mechanics lost none of its significance but its status was changed and it no longer represented the manner in which the physicist regarded his universe. Appreciating factors such as the above, the Physical Science Sub-committee (PSSC) was organised in U. S. A. in December, 1956 under a grant from the National Science Foundation to seek ways of giving expression to this new outlook in the high school curriculum in physics. This Committee has been at work at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology for the last 3-1/2 years and has enlisted the cooperation of over hundred full-time scientists and educators of which about 40 have come from colleges, universities and industrial laboratories and about the same number from secondary schools in all parts of the country and the rest from the various communication industries—film, television, and

the Press. The committee has received liberal financial assistance, running into millions of dollars, and is likely to finish its task by the end of this year. The specific aim of the PSSC includes the following :—

- (i) To plan a course of study in which major developments of physics, up to the present time, are presented in a logical and integrated whole;
- (ii) to present physics as an intellectual and cultural pursuit which is part of present day human activity;
- (iii) to assist Physics teachers by means of various teaching aids to carry out the proposed programmes.

As a result of its labours, this committee has prepared new textbooks, help-readers, film strips and set up a large exhibition of simple, economical and highly educative equipment covering a wide range of experiments included in the new syllabus. If America could afford several million dollars and the services of a hundred full-time scientists in an effort to improve the materials of study in physics for the age group of 16 to 18 only, cannot we, in India, even with our poor resources spend a modest sum to run a full time Institute to remodel our curriculum in all sciences? It is only by means of such continuous endeavour that we can hope to make up the leeway in the progress of science education in schools.

Need for a New Approach

Another aspect of the problem which needs our special attention is our general *approach* to the teaching of science at the secondary level. So far it has been in the classical British tradition where the emphasis is on acquiring an elementary knowledge of science through the study of physics and chemistry. In America and Russia the approach has been more biased in favour of application of science to industry and human well-being. This difference in outlook is seen in the bias towards skill in the science curriculum in the U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. as compared to the factual and abstract approach in our country. We have so far appreciated to a lesser extent the increasing value of science as a trainer in skill and an appropriate vehicle for spreading the

scientific spirit and teaching scientific method and scientific approach in solving life's problems.

One of the reasons for a change in the present methods of teaching of sciences lies in the fact that science itself has changed. It is, by now a commonplace, that most bodies of scientific knowledge are but a "temporary codex". Even doctrines of long standing are dispensed with when they are no longer entirely useful. The wave theory of light first put forth in 1665 successfully assimilated the data brought to it in the two centuries which followed it, but the discovery of the scattering of X-rays in the first quarter of the 20th century led to the reorganisation of the wave theory, root and branch. The cliché, that science is cumulative does not mean that one fact is added to another while the pile grows larger, but, rather, that as the growth of knowledge necessitates change of principles, "the knowledge content in older formulations is replaced by knowledge more comprehensive, more discriminating and more nearly exhaustive". This confers on the scientific enterprise a character alien to that conceived in the 19th century. The latter was naively literal. Science was supposed to study a permanent, inflexible given world and to seek and find unalterable truths. The method of instruction appropriate to such a view of science was, of course, clear and it consisted in mastering the true facts as shown by science. For such an education, the best possible material was of one kind only, that is, a clear and unequivocal presentation of the known. For neither doubt nor ambiguity characterised what was known. For imparting such an education, the suitable method was, first the conclusions were to be learned and remembered as given, then in the laboratory these were to be verified by experiments. For this purpose, precise and exact instructions told the students what to look at and what to look for. Then followed exercises inviting the applications of these truths. A dogmatic education then embodied an authoritative lecture and textbooks, inflexible laboratory instructions. This was the education appropriate to the 19th century view of science. It is, however, shockingly obvious that

even in the 20th century a majority of our schools, and with a few exceptions, even our universities, continue to convey scientific facts shorn of doubts and alternatives, and teach the "temporary codex" as if it were the eternal truth. Justifications put forth for this attitude are that the time allotted to a subject would permit a view of enquiry only at the expense of coverage and that the students would merely be confused by this discussion of doubts and alternatives. It is for the senior teachers in science to reflect on this attitude of mind and give an unambiguous guidance to junior teachers on this question.

What is needed, therefore, is a reorientation of the teaching of science to gear it to the scientific outlook. For this, science should be presented as inquiry and the students undertake inquiries as the root to the materials to be learned. In the laboratory the exercise, instead of limiting itself to exemplification of the laws of science and familiarization with apparatus and techniques, should be an occasion for the conduct of partial and miniature inquiries. Problems should be posed for which the student does not already know the right solution and goals should be set up which call for development by the student of plans of attack and patterns of experiment. In the lecture room also such materials and methods should be selected which exhibit instances and details of the course of inquiries. The teaching based on these principles may produce inquiring minds, who may in due course of time, become first rate scientists. The change, however, is taking place gradually. For example there is a tendency to eliminate a certain amount of historical data and to lay emphasis on the identification of fundamental decisions rather than to memorise facts. There is also a healthy tendency, at present, to eliminate excessive study of devices made possible by science i.e., the product of technology.

Physical Facilities

As regards the physical facilities for the teaching of sciences, the science sub-committee of the All-India Council for Secondary Education, it is understood, is planning to prepare a standard list of

scientific equipment for the guidance of school authorities. It is also arranging to prepare blue prints for standard laboratory accommodation suitable for school work. As the committee will have the advantage of architectural assistance as well, it is expected that the laboratory design both suitable for working, and economic in cost, will be produced, before long. The major obstacle, however, continues to be the inadequacy of scientific equipment and even when it is available, the high cost thereof. Several steps are being taken to solve this problem. Indigenous manufacture of scientific equipment, particularly useful for schools, is growing gradually, though so far it is unable to meet the expanding demand. A new Division under the name of Central Organization for Scientific Instruments has been set up by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research to implement the recommendations of the scientific instrument committee, the chief recommendation of which was to encourage manufacture of indigenous equipment. Advantage should also be taken of the book published under the auspices of the Unesco in which a detailed suggestion is given for setting up experiments from easily available and less costly material. This book was written specially to help rehabilitate the countries which had suffered damage during the last war. It is an excellent publication which should be in the hands of every science teacher.

Meeting Shortage of Personnel

The most difficult problem in the teaching of science in schools, however, is, to secure services of qualified teachers. No amount of laboratory equipment or other physical facilities would help to raise standards unless teachers of proper calibre become available. Increasing demand for highly educated manpower has resulted in the shortage of suitably trained teacher. It is common knowledge that intelligent pupils can be successfully taught only by properly qualified teachers but then everyone is also aware that there is a grave shortage of suitably qualified staff particularly in Mathematics and Sciences.

To develop a good system of education, it is necessary to attract better type of

candidates to the teaching profession by giving them better salary scales of pay and enhancing the prestige of the teaching profession. Unless the economic and social status of the school teacher is improved, it would be almost impossible to enrich the profession with people of higher intelligence and initiative. The selection of teachers particularly in Mathematics requires special attention because it is here that the most acute shortage of competent teachers is being felt. In this subject in particular, there is a lot of uninspired and unsatisfactory teaching. To produce a large number of science teachers, it would be logical to strengthen science education at higher levels in the first instance. This requires time, planning and phasing out the programme of University education to meet the demand as it develops. This can only be done when we know exactly what the demand is. There is also a danger that urgencies such as the recent flurry about the shortage of teachers and engineers may hush us in producing "Journey men" engineers and "Pedestrian" teachers by bestowing certificates and diplomas after the so called "intensive" training for a few months time. Expansion at the cost of quality is no expansion. No make shift arrangement for the supply of teachers can meet the situation because so far as the quality goes, it may deteriorate the standards still further.

Equally important is the question of giving in-service training to teachers who are already in the profession so that they may maintain proper contact with the new developments in the field of their own subjects.

During recent years, the increasing tempo of scientific advancement has made the problem of remaining well-informed really critical indeed. For the heavily loaded science teacher, it has become merely impossible to have full acquaintance with the newer discoveries even in his own field of

interest. To remedy this, Extension lectures, Seminars, Refresher courses should be arranged for the school teachers particularly during the vacation period. The University Grants Commission has started giving financial assistance to such Universities which arrange refresher courses of 6 to 8 weeks duration for the benefit of school teachers as well as for their own post-graduate students. The teachers, on their part, should be inspired by a spirit of dedication to their task.

Examination Reform

Much has already been said on the evils of the examination system. Intensive efforts are being directed to modify and improve upon the older methods, but it must be stressed that secondary education is the stage at which the pupils should be graded according to their aptitudes and abilities. Widespread concern currently prevails because of the evidence that gifted students have been largely overlooked in the Indian Secondary schools. This is perhaps the result of mass production in schools and also the traditional Indian sympathy for the unfortunate and the handicapped. Like other advanced countries, India should organise, science exhibitions and contests in search of science talent on State and national bases.

Finally it is essential that any educational pattern, to be useful, should be self-generating and should be easily changeable in conformity with new knowledge or changing social conditions. The world of fantastic opportunity awaits a brilliant scientist, but he must have the imagination and ability to make him equal to the occasion or the world may pass him by. Our scientific knowledge is expanding faster than a shot gun shell on charcoal fire. What is needed, therefore, is men whose thought capacity can keep pace with the changes around us: flexible men, with a broad background. Only the best school education based on sound and broad foundations can meet this need.

Education Costs in Canadian Colleges and Universities

EDUCATION, and specially higher education is more in demand today than ever before. Unlike what happened a generation or two ago, schooling now is not confined to the learning of a few skills. Apart from its value in dollars and cents, learning is for life, for complete living, and for the cultivation of virtues befitting the citizen of a free state. An educated man should be able to judge for himself how to utilize the gifts of a material civilization. Further, it is recognized that, scientific progress, technical advancement and economic success are all an outcome of good education and it alone has the potential of meeting the challenge of the day. If there is a race between peaceful progress and destruction through war, education will be the weapon used to get victory for the former.

We read and hear so much about the Russian system of education and its achievements. We also know that Britain and the United States are ahead of many countries in providing facilities of higher education to their youngsters. What is the situation in Canada? Many of us are interested in knowing who goes to College, how much money does he spend, on what items does he spend the money that he gets, from where does he get the money, and so on. To answer these and other relevant and related questions in a comprehensive manner the Education Division, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa, conducted a survey in 1956-57, in which almost 10,000 students from selected colleges and universities all over Canada participated.

High costs of university education, unavailability of enough fund, and the attraction of earning good wages without going to college are some of the reasons why only a few ambitious youngsters go ahead. In Canada between 7 to 8% of boys and girls of age group 18 to 24 are enrolled in colleges. Even among them there are some who fail to reach the top of the ladder. Many drop out because of inadequate financial resources.

According to the survey the students in the First Year were twice as many as in the Fourth Year of college. Besides, a number of students were reported to have postponed entrance to college because of lack of funds. There were others who had withdrawn from college or attended college part-time for the same reason. The percentage of men who did so was higher than women.

Women formed nearly one quarter of the entire group of students included in the survey. Among undergraduate students of both sexes only 1 out of every 10 was married, and of the graduates 2 out of every 5 were married. About two thirds of married students were working full time or part-time while going to college.

The survey revealed that the larger cities were better represented in the colleges and universities than their population demanded. The reason is obvious. A number of colleges and universities are located in large cities. There are two main reasons why a youngster living in a college town has more chances of going for higher education than his counterpart living away from such locality. From a very young age there is a great incentive for the children of that town to read and hear about and get interested in university activities, and make up their method to go there when the time comes. This is not surprising because it requires lesser amount of cash for a youngster living in a university town to attend the university than for one who has to leave home to do so. According to the report on the survey, the average total expenses of a college year for a student living with his parents were \$933, and for the one living away from home \$1,326 a difference of nearly \$400. One should not lose sight of the fact that this difference is not actual and is related to the cash outlay only. Items such as room and board, use of automobile, laundry, snacks and other amenities available to the student as a member of the family cannot be calculated in dollars and cents. The Survey points out that about one-third of the students lived at home while going to college. On the whole, it was the younger students who

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stayed with the parents. As the age increased the percentage of students living at home decreased.

Some families had only one child going to college, whereas there were others who had children other than the participating student going to college at the same time. Some students had older brothers and sisters who had attended college before. Thus the survey showed that 1 in every 20 student families had three or more children who attended college some time or the other.

A large number of students received full or part financial support from their families. Although the range of student-family-income was from zero to over \$10,000, they showed higher averages than Canadian families in general. There were about 50 per cent of student-families included in the survey with an annual income of \$5,000 or less, but in the nation there were 70 per cent of such families. Students with a family income \$10,000 or more were about 15 per cent, whereas there were a little over 3 per cent of the families in the nation with such income. Another interesting fact was that the women students came from comparatively higher income families than the men students. Thus it seemed that those who had the money went for higher education. It is hard for an individual with enough intelligence but no money to get the opportunity of developing his faculties and talents to the full. For women the case is worse. With fewer openings for summer jobs and lesser pay they find it harder to cope with the prohibitive costs of college education, unless their parents can well afford it. As will be seen later there are not enough scholarships, bursaries and other grants in aid, on which every needy student can bank money.

Another fact that throws light on the situation of higher education is that the largest single group of parents in the survey were proprietors and managers. The second largest group consisted of professionals. These two groups put together represented nearly half the parents. The percentage of proprietors, managers and professionals in the survey was higher than the one found in the population. A very interesting

relationship was noticed between the parent's occupation and the child's course of study. A number of Engineering, Medical and Law students reported their parents as Engineers, Doctors and Lawyers respectively. This is something for the social psychologist to note.

The students who were living away from home came from different distances to attend the university. There were some whose permanent home was more than 1000 miles away. About 8 per cent of total students participating in the survey came from other lands, the largest number coming from the United States. According to the survey very few Canadian men and still fewer women living on farms had the opportunity of going to college. A large majority of college going women were city residents.

When students come out of homes they have to select a place of residence. Various factors such as nearness to the college, friends and relatives, cost and comfort, guide their decision. In most cases the cost of living and eating is the deciding factor. The survey reports that a large number of them live within one mile of the campus, almost walking distance. Some ate at their places of residence with snacks and lunches bought from outside, others ate out side all the time, and still others who never ate outside. In the survey nearly half the students belonged to the latter category.

The majority of students in the Canadian Universities seek employment during the summer vacation to earn the money needed for the following college year. For some it is an additional spending money, whereas there are others who either must earn money or stay out of college. In the summer of 1956 nearly nine-tenths of students had jobs of various descriptions and varying salaries. Some of the positions held were closely related to the student's course work, such as those of medical intern, articled law student, assistant engineer, draftsman, surveyor, teacher, research technician, etc. Jobs which required special skills included those of machine repairman, carpenter, plumber, typist, stenographer, radio announcer etc. Casual and miscellaneous jobs found students working as truck drivers, bus drivers, cooks, bakers, golf caddies,

porters, janitors, labourers, etc. During that summer, there was a larger percentage of women than men students who were without jobs. Monthly income received from summer positions ranged from a few dollars to \$750. A maximum saving of \$3,500 was reported. The men students earned higher salaries than women students. The average earnings of each student increased with age. One of the reasons may be that the older students were in the advanced years of course work and so they had the opportunity of getting better positions. The average earning per month was \$216.

In addition to summer employment a little over one quarter of the total students were earning while learning according to the survey. Some were studying full time and working part-time and a few others were studying part-time and working full time. In order to supplement their income by part-time work, a majority of these took up any available job. There were some who worked for the college, e.g., at the library, cafeteria, office, laboratory etc. A few of these positions were related to the student's course work. Similar positions outside the campus included those of teacher, coach, school psychologist, industrial psychologist, nurse, surveyor, engineer, mechanic, law clerk etc. But nearly one half of those working during the college year were engaged in casual and miscellaneous jobs of a temporary nature. These included babysitting, housekeeping, bar tending, truck driving, clerking in stores, butchering, barbering, working in restaurants and on odd jobs etc. A few students worked for their parents or for room and board only. Since much time was not left after doing justice to their studies, the students worked on an average of 7 hours per week. In all age groups, according to the survey a higher percentage of men than women students worked during the college year.

It was not only the students who earned in order to go to college, a number of married students reported their spouses working full time or part-time to pay their way through college.

Costs of a college year differed as between student and student. In the same

campus and in the same faculty one student may spend twice as much as another. It was noticed that students coming from higher-income-families spent more than the others. In faculties like Medicine, Law and Engineering higher fees and books and equipment of educational value were more numerous and expensive than those required by the students of some other faculties, and correspondingly their budgets were higher. The survey shows that there was a small number of students in the total of 10,000 who spent as little as \$400 or less during the college year. They were living with their parents. On the other side of the picture, there were a few, but rare, who spent 5,000 or more. These were married students with dependents. They spent most of their money on capital purchases. On the whole married students spent considerably more than single students, and men spent more than women. The total expenditure of both men and women increased every succeeding year, the difference from the first year to the last was \$210. The Average total expenses of undergraduates of different faculties are given below :

Faculty	Living at home	Away from home
	\$	\$
Arts and Science ..	868	1,216
Engineering	1,087	1,418
Medicine	1,276	1,794
Law	1,231	1,763
Education	688	983
Total (average)	933	1,326

The average total expenditure for graduates was \$1,649. The average for single students was \$1,191, as compared to \$2,134 for married students. The students of colleges in Ontario and Quebec reported higher expenditures than those of other provinces.

As students reported their expenses by items, it was calculated that the total living costs were double the educational costs. Many graduate students were married and had dependents. This fact accounted for their still higher proportion for living costs.

A very clear and interesting analogy is seen when an average budget of living costs of a university student is compared to an average budget of a city family by major items. The figures for the city family expenditure are based on the average of the seven largest cities of Canada. While interpreting the two sets of figures, the reader should keep in mind that many of the colleges and universities included in the survey are not located in these cities. In the figures given below a whole dollar is approximately divided into cents spent on various items :

<i>Items</i>	<i>Student</i>	<i>City family</i>
	\$	\$
Housing	17	17
Food	27	25
Snacks, smoking etc.	7	4
Recreation and entertainment	10	4
Health	4	4
Personal care	2	2
Clothing	14	9
Gifts, contributions ..	2	2
Capital costs	7	6
Others	10	27

In brief, the main items on which students spend more than the city family were snacks, recreation and clothing. The expenditure on the rest of the items was very close. The reasons for the differences are obvious.

When a comparison was made between the budgets of men and women students, it was found that women spent more on grooming and clothing, and men spent more on snacks and recreation. During the college year a few female students spent as much as \$800 on clothing.

Expenditure on tuition fees varied from faculty to faculty and college to college. The Survey shows that one-half of the students paid \$325 or less and the other half more than this amount. Next to fees, food was the largest single item of expense in a majority of student budgets. About one quarter of them did not report any expense on this item as they were living with their families. For all those who were staying away from home room rent was also a big

item of expense. The average food expense for the college year was around \$300 and the average room expense about \$200. Some students spent as little as \$5 or less on snacks or recreation, whereas there were others who spent even more than \$200. The average on snacks was \$50 and on recreation and entertainment \$70 for the college year.

Transportation expense fluctuated from zero to several hundred dollars. It largely depended on the location of the students permanent and campus homes. Students from other lands spent large sums of money to arrive in Canada. There were about one-eighths of students who owned their own automobiles. A few saved money by hitch-hiking.

Many articles were mentioned under the expense item of capital costs. Besides things of educational value, house-hold furnishings and other things bought for the family were mentioned. At the bottom things such as ash trays, bulbs, plugs, cushions etc., were included. Some reported purchases of musical instruments and radio and television sets. Others mentioned fur coats, engagement and wedding rings, expensive jewellery etc. On the whole about 5 per cent of the total money was spent on capital purchases, and only one-third of the students reported making any such purchases. The men students spent more than women students on these. Further, not only that men spent more, but there was a much higher percentage of them who made these purchases.

The following table shows the division of a dollar into major items of expenditure for a college student :

<i>Item</i>	<i>Percentage of expenditure</i>
Room and Board	29.2
Fees and Books	27.1
Health, Grooming and Clothing	14.7
Recreation and Entertainment	12.6
Other Current Expenses	6.1
Transportation	5.4
Capital Costs	4.9

Room and board took away the maximum out of a dollar. To a large extent this item was eliminated for those who were fortunate enough to have their supporting families in the college town. For them tuition fees and books was the item of expenditure which required the largest amount of money and on which they had little control once they had selected their field of study and the college. Expenditure on other items that follow, could in most cases be reduced to a minimum by those who wanted to live on modest or economy budgets. A number of students spent nothing or a bare minimum on snacks, recreation, clothing, transportation etc. The amount of money spent by a student was not always positively related to the quality of education, because it depended on what, where and how he spent what he had. Most of these facts were related to the funds, habits and needs of the individual, and the averages discussed should be interpreted in the light of this statement.

The money that the students spent came from various sources. Since it was not possible to find out the cost of the amenities which the students enjoyed as family members, the discussion is limited to their cash income only. The survey reported that the students depended largely on their own earnings. This fact is different from what a survey on the students of colleges and universities in the United States undertaken in 1952-1953, reported. According to the latter survey the family provided the largest amount of cash to the students. Canadian students, thus, seemed to be more self-dependent. About two-fifths of the total funds came from the summer and part-time earnings of the students themselves. The family provided a little over one-fourth of the total money. The graduate students depended mostly on their own earnings and received very little by way of family support. This deficiency was made up by larger amounts of scholarships, fellowships bursaries and other grants in aid they received. These provided about one-eighth of their total income. The under-graduates also received scholarships, bursaries etc., but in a smaller number and amount. The average amount of money received by the graduates in scholarships was \$1,000 or

more, but for the undergraduates this amount was only \$290. This was hardly sufficient to pay their fees, or board if they were living away from home. About 15 per cent of students received scholarships of some amount. Comparing the family income of the students and the scholarship award, it was found that the largest number of scholarship recipients had reported their family income between \$4,000 and 7,000. In most cases students with families having lower income received scholarship awards of larger amounts and *vice versa*. About one-fourth of the scholarship recipients reported that their family income was less than \$2,000. But only one-fourteenth of the total students participating in the survey represented families of such income. On the other hand one-fourteenth of the scholarships were awarded to students having a family income \$10,000 or more. They were one-seventh of the entire student group in the survey. The largest number of scholarships were awarded to First Year students. These were more than their number demanded.

As would be expected, students with scholarship awards got less money from their families as compared to others. The money received from the family decreased with the increase in the scholarship amount. One-fifth of scholarship recipients had less than \$100 from their families. This kind of negative relationship between scholarship money and family contribution leads to two conclusions: 1. The scholarships were awarded, and specially the amount of money given was decided upon, in consideration of the needs and requirements of the individual student concerned. 2. When a student received enough money through the scholarship award, he did not require much money to supplement it from family funds.

An interesting relationship was noticed between the amount of scholarship and the amount of expenditure. Those who had higher scholarships spent more. It may be that higher amounts of scholarships were given because the student needed more money or those who received larger sums of money by way of scholarships could afford to spend more than those who received smaller amounts.

Bursaries are awards generally granted in recognition of the need and scholarship of the individual student. In most cases they carry lesser amount of money than scholarships. The present survey showed that not only the bursary amounts were smaller but the number of bursaries granted was also fewer. Only 12 per cent of the students received bursaries. Of these, two-thirds reported their family income as less than \$4,000 and one-fiftieth as \$10,000 and over.

In the Faculty of Arts and Science a larger percentage of women than men students received scholarships. But the amount of money given was smaller for women. For bursaries the situation was a little different. Men students received a larger number of bursaries and the amounts were also larger as compared to what women received.

There were several other kinds of grants in aid besides scholarships and bursaries. These were received by only a few students. Some of these grants were from the Department of Veterans' Affairs, National Defence, Regular Officers' Training Plan etc.

The amount of money contributed by the family towards the education of its wards depended mainly on two factors : the availability of funds and the need of the particular student. The families with higher incomes contributed more than those with comparatively lower incomes. On an average those who supplied their university going wards with \$1,000 or more had an income of \$7,000 or more. The students living at home required and received less than those living away from home even if the family income was the same. Some families provided all the money for their ward's college education even when the level of income was low.

About three-fifths of students received financial assistance from their families with an average of \$552. The highest average was for the students of the Faculty of Law. It was \$864. Almost all the students of Classical Colleges included in the survey reported that they received money from their parents. As far as the students and family assistance to them were concerned, it seemed that the formula of supply and demand could be applied. For example the students of Law

and Medicine required more money as compared to others and the family supplied them with more. The students of Arts and Science had average budgets as compared to other faculties in the survey and they did not show very high or very low averages for the amounts of money received from the families. The women students got more from their parents partly because they earned less and received lesser amounts from other grants. A little over three-fourths of women students of Arts and Science received family aid, with an average of \$664. A little over one-half of the men received it with an average of \$455.

The importance of loans as financial aid to the students can be recognized by the fact that almost one-tenth of the total funds as shown by the present survey was borrowed from different sources. More than half of the money was loaned by parents, and it is doubtful how much of it can be placed in the category of regular loans. The average loan from any source was about \$300. The data showed that fewer students living at home needed to borrow money as compared to those living away from home. Fewer women than men students borrowed money but the amounts they borrowed were larger. At the end of the year some students reported outstanding debts. The average debt reported was around \$400.

Out of every dollar spent by the students, 30 cents came from the savings of the summer job earnings. About three-fourths of the students reported these savings and an average saving of \$507 was reported. The average savings of the men students of the Faculty of Arts and Science was \$559 and of the women \$303. Summer employment not only provided the money, it also profited some of the students by providing them with opportunities to do the type of work which was related to their course work.

A little over one-quarter of the students in the survey were earning while learning. Their average earning was \$217. This earning accounted for nearly one-tenth of the total income of all the students. The graduate students reported that nearly one-quarter of their income came from earning while going to college. The average part-time earnings of

men students were more than twice as much as that of women students. The latter worked a lesser number of hours and for lower salaries. These two factors accounted for their lower earnings.

The following table shows the division of a dollar into income from major sources.

<i>Sources</i>	<i>Percentage of Income</i>
Earnings	39.6
Family Funds and Gifts ..	27.5
Loans	9.4
Previous Savings	7.9
Scholarships and Bursaries ..	6.4
Other Sources	4.2
National Defence, R.O.T.P., D.V.A.	2.6
Other Grants	2.4

Although a large number of students in Canadian colleges and universities depend on themselves for their financial requirements, there are others who have to tap various sources in order to meet the high costs of education. The percentage of students who were able to provide for themselves through scholarships, bursaries and summer and part-time earnings varied from faculty to faculty. It was found that 32 per cent of Graduates, 18 per cent in

Engineering, 15 per cent in Arts and Science, 12 per cent in Education, 9 per cent in Law and 4 per cent in Medicine paid their way, considering that they received \$100 or less from their families, friends and loans.

The above discussion points out several interesting and noteworthy facts. The students worked hard to earn money not only during the summer vacation but also during the college year. They did so because they needed money, otherwise the usefulness of part time work is questionable. How far this work interferes with the studies and affects the physical, mental and social health of the student, is not known. The number of scholarships, bursaries and other grants is limited, and in most cases the amount of money thus received is far from sufficient to meet the expenses of the students. The parents do their best. It is near impossible to support a child fully in college when the family income is less than \$5,000, besides it is hard even on families with higher incomes when they have more than one child at college. The intelligent, ambitious and hard working youngster does manage to get through the college, but he can do still better if he does not have to worry for his bare necessities. The bright side of the picture is that the public as well as the Government is gradually becoming aware of the situation and there is every hope that the things will be different in not too distant a future.

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After the afternoon classes the boys and girls go to the playground for healthy recreation. The school boys and girls have literary meetings every week. Besides, the senior students also arrange literary functions, debates, study circles and publish wall papers. Sometimes, students arrange dramas and variety shows.

Our Santiniketan is like a big family. All of us have friendly relationship with one another. The relation between the teacher and the taught is close and cordial. In the words of Gurudev—

She is our own, the darling of our hearts

Our Santiniketan.

Our dreams are locked in her arms, her face is a fresh wonder of love,

Every time we see her.

She is our own, the darling of our hearts.

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Value of Post-Vacation

Examinations

“OF THE PURPOSES for which examinations are held, certainly the first, namely, the evaluation of progress, is the most important. On it depends not only grading and promotion but even the method of instruction.”⁽¹⁾ Falling in line with this view, expressed by eminent educationists, several projects have been undertaken in India in order to effect suitable reforms in the present system of school examinations.

With a view to evaluating the maximal progress of the students through an examination, the examiner must critically take into account all the factors relating to *method, technique, spread and moment* of the examination. On methods and techniques, much thought has been given and experiments have been carried out but comparatively little attention has been given to the two other factors viz., *spread* and *moment*. Of these, *spread* pertains to the problem of optimum duration and comfortable periodicity of examinations, whereas, *moment* deals with the most opportune season of the examination when it can yield the truest possible representative picture of the progress of the examinee.

All over India, examinations in schools are held at different times in different areas according to local circumstances. Students may sometimes grumble about the timing because of personal inconvenience caused by bad weather, preceding or approaching social festivities and the like. This problem relates to the *moment*-factor of the examination system and deserves of the examination system and deserves thorough study as to its responsibility for the success and failure of the examinee.

The problem has its polygonal facets. These are to be attacked with an all-important attitude towards the overall reform of the system of examination. In the present study, attention has been given only to *one* of the many facets.

The aspect or the facet of the problem on which the present attack is concentrated through this paper is the question of value

of an examination, held just after a long school vacation to assess and evaluate the progress made by students during a certain period or term. In other words, the author of this paper has stepped into a hitherto untrodden province of the so-called examination riddle. Namely the consideration of the value of post-vacation examinations, their superior evaluating value over the pre-vacation ones.

Popular View

The popular view of the teachers, of course, contributes to the general and common belief that the pre-vacation examination is preferable to the post-vacation one inasmuch as the pre-one evaluates the immediately gained knowledge of students and therefore the scored results are satisfactory and consequently encouraging to the examinees. This view provides a source of encouragement to the teachers as well. But it gives limited consideration to the system of learning and memorisation within the mental structure of school students. Learning and memorisation are closely and indispensably interrelated and as such any discussion of proper learning must, as a matter of fact, include some relevant reference to the mysterious mechanisms of memorisation and retention of learned materials. If any examination virtually aims at assessing the actual amount of learning 'retained' in the examinee, then it would have no other alternative than to pay respect to the famous and accepted findings of Ebbinghaus⁽²⁾ on the amount of retention gained immediately after learning and after a long lapse of time therefrom. Ebbinghaus's findings and his well-known retention-curve show that retention of learning is generally stable only after a long lapse of time and not immediately after the learning. Loss of learning is generally very rapid during the period just following learning and as such it would be rather doubtful whether there is any efficacy in an examination held just after learning which runs the risk of evaluating a losing trend of learning, instead of evaluating the actual-most amount of learning properly retained.

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With an honest intention of convincing the popular 'pre-vacation' belief with some observed facts based on this scientific judgement, the author of this paper undertook an unbiased study programme on the problem in a Calcutta High School.

Purposive Sampling

The study was planned to be conducted with a batch of 56 students of the Chandi Charan High School, Central Calcutta. Fifty per cent of them were above average and the other 50 per cent below average. In fact, the sampling was made purposive and was deliberately restricted to a mixed group of students of equally proportionate above and below average ability so as to eliminate any bias in the investigation. For the present study, the score of 40 was taken as the average standard on the basis of the results of the preceding annual examination. The argument in favour of this sort of purposive sampling is that in case of any positive findings that might come out of the present study on the efficacy of the post-vacation examination, then even this group, consisting of equal proportion of students of high and low average ability, would show a balanced amount of progress in the results and would thus establish the fact more firmly that the post-vacation examination is superior, or in the event of any adverse outcome of findings, the superiority of this examination would be called into question.

Two parallel tests on Arithmetic were also prepared, one to be used before the vacation, the other after the vacation. Both the tests carried 100 marks and were designed for a 3-hour non-objective paper-pencil-type examination as usual for the students of the junior secondary stage. The plan of the study was kept secret even from the teachers to avoid any risk of manipulation of scoring on their part. Not a hint was given to the students, that they would be further examined after the vacation, lest they might concentrate upon studying deeply during the vacation thereby affecting the post-vacation results far too positively.

Administration and Collection of Data

It was scheduled that the pre-vacation test should be administered only a week

before the commencement of the vacation and the post-vacation test would be held just a week after the long vacation.

The pre-vacation examination was held according to schedule in May 1957 just a week before the six-week-long Summer Vacation. The test was given to all the 56 students of the sample group by the class teachers. All scoring of papers and tabulations of results were done by those teachers. Scoring was numerical. The results in which the highest raw score was 74 and the lowest 5 on a percentile scale were kept undisclosed.

The post-vacation test was administered after a total lapse of eight weeks from the pre-vacation one. This time eight students did not appear at the test due to personal reasons; hence the strength of the sample group was actually reduced to 48 with an inevitable wastage of some data collected from the pre-vacation test. The results were however decidedly better and encouraging as the highest raw score rose up to 99 and the lowest down to 17.

There is no doubt that in both the pre-vacation and post-vacation test scores, large variable errors are present. The fact that the sampling was purposive served to increase the errors in the scores. It should not be overlooked, however, that random sampling formulas apply more or less accurately to purposive samples^(3a), inasmuch as purposive sampling is almost truly representative and as such, sampling fluctuations and errors of measurement are less than would otherwise be the case.

Another fact which probably affected the significance of the test scores was that the size of the sample was not very large. Assuming, however, that the present sample numbering 48 was all drawn from a normal population, the range covered by them will be approximately ± 2.5 S.D.^(3b). A range of ± 2.5 S.D. from the mean includes 9,876 cases in 10,000 in a normally distributed population. In a sample of 10,000, only 124 cases lie outside this range; in a sample of 48 cases, as in the present study, therefore, none lies outside this range. The reliability of the data in the present study,

eventually, need not be much looked down upon merely because of the smallness of the sample.

Furthermore, it is feared that some subjective errors have crept in due to the use of non-objective questions and the application of stereotyped numerical scoring procedure. Undoubtedly, the errors present in the raw scores were increased by this fact. With this apprehension, a test of Arithmetic was preferred to a test on any other subject in order to hold out the errors of subjectivity to the minimum. To minimise these errors, great care, however, was taken in transmutation and sound statistical procedure was followed in computation. In spite of that, it was not possible, in all cases, to be sure that the transmuted scores were really equivalent to the original ones. The effect of increasing such variable errors was to lower the significant difference between the positive and the negative results produced therethrough.

Had it been possible to eliminate all these errors completely, the author is of opinion that the positive conclusion of this study would have been more significant and appealing to laymen. There is however much scope for follow-up study of the problem with a larger sample.

The Computation of T-Scores etc.

The next step after collection was to calculate and compute the data to arrive at a final conclusion. In the present investigation, it was found after preliminary calculation that the differential scores (*i.e.* Post-Vacation scores minus Pre-Vacation scores) were of considerable discriminating value and that the positive differential scores were 69 per cent of the working sample (constituting 28 out of 48) and the negative differential scores, as such, were 31 per cent only of the entire sample (20 out of 48).

As these differential scores would greatly baffle proper comparison between the positive and the negative groups, inasmuch as, their respective units of scales might be suspected to vary from each other, it was decided that the differential scores should be normalised by converting them into T-Scores. This conversion provided both the positive

and the negative distributions a common mean of 50 and S.D. of 10, thus facilitating advantageous comparison. Another step was taken to equalise both the positive and the negative groups by converting their respective frequencies into percent-frequencies, thereby eliminating the difficulty in comparison arising out of unequal size (N) of the groups (Positive 28 and Negative 20).

Judgement through Skewness

Actual medians calculated from the T-Score distributions of the two differential groups reveal that the median of 50.8 of the positive group was higher than its normalised mean of 50 thereby indicating negative skewness of the distribution and the scores are massed at the high end of the scale. The median of 48.5 of the negative group is lower than its normalised mean of 50 thereby suggesting positive skewness of the distribution, *i.e.* the negative differential scores are clustered towards the low end of scale. This observation is interesting so far as both the measures of skewness conspire to show that positive differential scores are greater in this study.

Finally, the observed results were tested against a null hypothesis with the help of a Chi-square test. The hypothesis was that the positive differential scores would be as low as 25 per cent (*i.e.* 12 out of 48). On the basis of these guessed or expected results, the Chi-square was computed at 26.69 with P less than .01. The discrepancy between the observed and the guessed values is here so great that the hypothesis of a higher negative distribution must be rejected. The Chi-square is very large and the probability (P) that the obtained results may really diverge from the guessed results is highly significant even beyond the .01 level of confidence, on the grounds that the divergence of results is too unlikely of occurrence to be accounted for solely by sampling fluctuations.

Judgement of Predictive Value

Through the measurement of linear correlation, it was also observed that the scores of the post-vacation test held a higher predictive value than that of the pre-vacation scores, inasmuch as the co-efficient of

correlation between the post-vacation test and the following annual examination was .57 whereas that between the pre-vacation test and the annual school examination was .50. The predictive value of the post-vacation test is therefore obviously higher. The difference between the two co-efficients is however not very large because of the fact that both the correlation groups have been taken from the same sample and that both of them assumed to be positively correlated(6). It may be maintained further that the correlation co-efficients of the tests and their differences would have been much higher, in case the size of the sample was larger and the experimental groups were chosen from different strata of sample.

Summary and Conclusions

The Problem : The problem of this investigation has been to determine how far a post-vacation examination evaluates the progress of students better than a pre-vacation examination.

Observations : At the outset, it was found that 69 per cent of the entire experimental group showed a positive improvement in the post-vacation examination. Through the measures of skewness it was further established that the positive differences were higher than negative differences in the post-vacation test. Over-imposed percent-frequency polygons also passed the same verdict. These findings would have been more impressive if the size of the sample were larger. At last, through a Chi-square test, any other hypothesis or expectations had to be totally rejected. The predictive value of the post-vacation test was also found to be higher in forecasting the achievement in the following Annual School Examination. The observations were followed up in the following year of 1958 and it is encouraging that more or less similar results were obtained in support of the conclusion that the post-vacation school examination gives a better picture of one's progress in studies.

Conclusions : This paper, therefore, advocates the preference of holding periodical or terminal examinations sometime only after a long vacation. This investigation reveals the fact that a post-vacation examination can represent a better picture of one's

retained learning and progress thereon. It therefore goes directly against the popular notion that pre-vacation examination, held just after the learning-term concludes, yields higher scores.

The most obvious reason for this improvement would seem to be the freedom from fatigue that results from the rest through a long-vacation. The principle of consolidation may also be invoked to explain this phenomenon(4). According to Dr. Ballard, along with the obliviscence that takes place as a result of lapse of time, there is reminiscence, due to the endopsychic consolidation and organisation of the memory traces into engram-complexes(5). It is important to note that reminiscence and obliviscence are going on at the same time, counter-acting each other's effects. The improvement after a long lapse of time, as in the present study, really represents a credit balance in favour of reminiscence. It is therefore well in accord to believe that the excitement of a disposition does not die out immediately after the corresponding experience passes out of consciousness, but continues in a lower or modified form some days and weeks after, and thus, tends to arrest and reverse the process of dissolution.

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EDUCATING THROUGH DISCUSSION

THE IMPORTANCE OF the discussion method as an effective medium of education was realised for the first time in India by the exponents of General Education. The Universities which have so far introduced General Education Programme have, therefore, given the discussion method a place of honour. The emphasis on the discussion method may be attributed to the growing dissatisfaction with the lecture method in which the students play a passive role. It was found extremely desirable to supplement it with a device which may give the students an opportunity for active participation in the teaching learning situations. The discussion method provides ample opportunities for this. At Aligarh, where General Education has lately been introduced as a compulsory course for the first degree, the proportion between lectures and discussions is 2:3 per week respectively. The teachers of General Education have had the unique opportunity to put the discussion method into practice with about 1,200 students. The purpose of this article is to describe the discussion method in action, to suggest criteria for the assessment of its efficacy and validity and to point out its superior educative values.

Preliminary Considerations

In order to get the maximum benefit out of the method, big classes are split up into small groups comprising about 15 students or preferably less. All the members share equally in the deliberations and also share the responsibility of the outcome under the leadership of the teachers. There is no audience and the discussions are held in surroundings conducive to informality. The chairs are arranged in such a way that the participants see each other. The students remain seated while speaking. The primary purpose of the discussion is to share information about a topic of mutual interest. The teacher generally initiates the discussion but sometimes one of the brighter members may be asked to set the ball rolling. The students are encouraged to say whatever they feel and

think about the problem. The teacher enters into the discussion only to ask clarifying questions; to bring the discussion back to the subject or to keep the discussion from becoming one-sided. He has generally to make suggestions instead of giving directions and to ask questions instead of answering them. In the end he may give a summary of the points of agreement and also of the divergent views.

Topics for Discussion

The topics for discussion may be of two types such as topics of general interest and topics related to the general education syllabus. Some topics pertaining to the social science broad-field are as follows :—

1. Should democracy aim at the social good through individual freedom and free enterprise or through keeping him in check ?
2. Should students participate in politics ?
3. The existence of a large number of political parties is conducive to political instability.
4. How to make democracy safe in India ?
5. Does the economic progress of India rest on industrialization or agricultural development or both ?
6. Is it necessary for the development of a broad national and secular outlook to replace English by Hindi as the medium of instruction in our Universities ?
7. "The real history of India in the 'Middle Ages' is the record of attempts at synthesis and cooperation between Hindus and Muslims on a thousand plane".
8. "It would be impossible to think of an India where no Mughals ruled; where no Taj was built and where no Macaulay wrote his minutes on education".

Inside the Discussion Room

(Here is an account of one of the group discussions. The group comprised about

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10 students of the B.A. Part I class. The names of the active participants in the discussion are Messrs : Anis, Junaid, Jagdish and Vadra. The topic was assigned on a previous turn so that the students may come prepared for participation in the discussion. One of the students (Anis) who has come with a written note on the topic, has been given the opportunity to initiate the discussion by reading out his note).

Anis : The topic for discussion is : How to make democracy safe in India ?

(reads) In the functioning of a democratic system political parties and such other organizations play an active role. The first step to make democracy safe in India is that all political parties be governed by reason and not by prejudice. If they will act against this it would seriously affect the working of democracy on sound lines. Another step which should be taken is to give education to the people so that they may understand the problems facing the country and thus they will know their rights and duties.

Nasir :—I agree with Mr. Anis in the remark that the success of democracy depends on education and on the removal of illiteracy. Thus the people will be able to give vote to right men and will not be easily exploited by dishonest persons.

Junaid :—I think that inequality in status and income should be removed. The removal of the extreme poverty of the masses is essential for the success of democracy.

Teacher :—Nobody can do this for you unless you yourself try to achieve it. What is to be done then ?

Vadra :—We can achieve all this by establishing true democracy.

Anis :—What is true democracy ?

Vadra :—(hurriedly turns some pages of his note-book and reads) Democracy is a system of life in

which people participate in framing policies and executing them in order to attain dignity of the individual, equality of human beings and social good.

Teacher :—Which of the objectives pointed out by you is most important ?

Vadra :—Social good is the most important one because if we take this into consideration in our daily life all will be happy and democracy will be liked by all.

Jagdish :—Social good sometimes clashes with individual good.

Vadra :—The government can make some laws to secure social good.

Teacher :—This means that you are willing to surrender some of your freedom for the good of the society.

Some Students :—Yes, we must.

Teacher :—Suppose there is a dictator who tries to ensure the maximum of social good. Would you call him democratic ?

Vadra :—No, we cannot call him democratic because he does not fulfil the other conditions of democracy such as people's participation in the framing of policies. His government may be for the people but it is definitely not by the people.

Teacher :—Very good. Now let us proceed in our task of finding some concrete suggestions for making democracy safe in India.

Singh :—I think democracy can be put on a sound footing by nationalizing industries so that their profit may go to the public.

Jagdish :—I think this is against democracy because it will deny freedom to the businessmen concerned. This will rather kill democracy.

Teacher :—You should consider your opinion in the light of the directive of the Constitution which

envisages a socialistic pattern of society and hence the State is authorised to take over all such means of production and capital which might be working against the interests of the common man.

Jagdish :—I think only those industries should be nationalised which do harm to society, otherwise private ownership should be retained.

(The discussion now centred round the merits and demerits of private enterprise but the teacher intervened.)

Teacher :—It is now time to summarise the points of agreement as well as the divergent views. The points which are common to all are eradication of poverty and illiteracy as the key to the success of democracy. Some believe in nationalization of industries and others are of the view that private enterprise should be allowed to exist unless its activities stand in the way of the well being of the common man.

Criteria of Effectiveness

In order to ascertain the effectiveness of the discussion the first thing to be taken into consideration is student's participation in the discussion. This may be taken as one of the criteria of the effectiveness of the

discussion. Other criteria may be objective and unbiased thinking and systematic presentation etc. Another way of ascertaining the effectiveness of the discussion is to elicit information from the students themselves whether the purpose of the discussion was clear to them; were they interested in the topic and whether many of the students participated in the discussion or it was dominated by the teachers, etc. etc.

Merits of Discussion Method

The merit of the discussion technique obviously lies in giving the students an opportunity to think effectively and objectively through organizing ideas, drawing conclusions based on evidence and also the reconsideration of opinion in the light of new evidence supplied by the group of mind. It may be pointed out that through discussion it is possible to elicit some information from the dullest of the students and the back benches of the big lecture rooms. The informal atmosphere of the discussion encourages better student-teacher relations which are likely to be helpful in resolving the problem of student indiscipline caused by lack of understanding and contact between the teacher and the taught. Further the discussion method which provides full opportunities for mutual sharing of ideas is a guarantee against indoctrination. Even the teacher has to accept the views of the students if supported by laudable arguments. The best discussion on this ground is that in which the teacher remains in the background and respects the opinion of the members.

- The sense of honour is of so fine and delicate a nature that it is only to be met within minds which are naturally noble, or in such as have been cultivated by good examples, or a refined education. —Addison

Some Impressions of English Education

MOST EDUCATIONISTS in our modern world would desire to provide a child-centred education wherever that was possible. However, in many countries circumstances hinder provision of such an education. Among these educational circumstances is the practice of setting examinations. These are usually devised on a basis of so-called "established subjects", and teachers therefore feel that they are committed to teaching such subjects irrespective of the interests of their pupils. As a result, the extension of child-centred education is hindered. But in English primary schools, teachers consider examinations a minor feature of the educational system. Further, in England especially in primary schools other circumstances combine to encourage teachers to develop a child-centred curriculum.

Perhaps the most encouraging of these circumstances is the fact that teachers in primary schools in England have the requisite skills, possess materials and find the time to construct the teaching apparatus. For example, they devise and construct reading and arithmetic cards big enough for small children to use with ease. Teachers can then guide their pupils in using these cards to teach themselves. This ensures that children are active in the pursuit of knowledge, and, as children in these classes can usually select from a variety of apparatus, a "quality" of child-centredness is a consequence. English teachers appear to be adept at providing for themselves what we in India might call "audio-visual" aids.

Clearly, if the curriculum of primary schools is to be child-centred, some provision must be made for children to work at material which suits their own individual needs. Walk with me into a typical English primary school class-room and see how it is done. The room looks like a museum in miniature. A variety of charts used in the teaching of number, hang on the walls. Ranged round the room are cards each bearing a short word; pupils read these and so build

up their vocabularies. Scrap books, prepared by pupils themselves, hang in one corner of the room, while pictures, drawn and coloured during art classes, occupy wall space in the same corner. Wooden boxes of soil sprout seeds, and these are part of the nature study lessons now in progress. Weather charts, on which the children make daily entries, occupy part of the wall between blackboard and door. A book-corner is an essential feature of the room. Here we find general reading books available to pupils at all times. Charts, cards, specimens, pictures and books of this kind together provide a setting for purposeful activity, an essential feature of a child-centred curriculum.

Among other circumstances which encourage teacher in primary schools to develop a child-centred curriculum is the fact that they are not obliged to follow centrally prescribed and rigid syllabuses of work. Each teacher seems free to frame his syllabus so as to suit the needs of his children and the environment of the school. Consider for example, school X... Its pupils come from working class homes, and its class-rooms are cramped, but its teaching apparatus is modern and its teachers are continually adding to it. In this school, the entire morning session is devoted to basic subjects like English and Arithmetic, but a visitor to one of the class-rooms at any given moment during the morning would see children engaged on a variety of tasks. Some would be doing sums—but not necessarily the same sums; some would be working at English—though some would be writing, others reading and a handful completing exercises. In such ways the teacher adjusts a tentative syllabus to the individual needs of his children.

A third circumstance which contributes greatly to the development of a child-centred education in English primary schools is the close and happy relationship usually established between teacher and pupil.

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This happy relationship is, as the reader will doubtless guess, partly a consequence of the fact that children are often in a position to choose what they will work at. But it is also a function of the way in which pupils and teacher work together as a team in extra-curricular as well as in curricular activities. For example, children help to serve the mid-day school meal: selected older children act as monitors and prefects, and in some schools again older pupils run a sweetmeat shop. As few English headteachers have clerical assistants, children often help with clerical work such as addressing envelopes to parents or with collecting and accounting for payment for mid-day meals. In all these and in many other ways a happy team spirit builds up between pupils and teachers in many English primary and secondary schools.

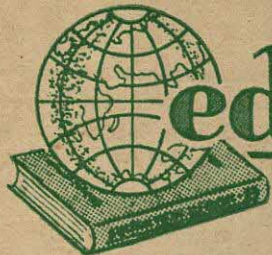
If the relationship between teacher and pupil is a happy one in most English primary schools, so is the relationship between teachers and headteachers. This is a fourth circumstance which contributes to the development of child-centred education in England, for this happy relationship means in practice that a head rarely tries to confine his teachers to syllabuses which he has drawn up for them. He relies rather on members of his staff to adjust syllabuses as they think expedient, to give to them their own interpretations and their own personal emphases. In turn, as we have seen this means that teachers are in large measure free to consult the interests of their pupils. Here is a chain reaction; a headteacher trusts his staff; the staff, in intimate contact with pupils, work to flexible syllabuses which they can adjust as need or opportunity demand.

Contrary to widespread opinion a flexible, child-centred curriculum does provide opportunities for children to acquire knowledge and skills, and to develop moral qualities. Just as a flexible unwritten British constitution appears to work well enough, so does a flexible unwritten English curriculum. In one lively primary school

which I visited teachers and pupils were apparently getting on quite happily with their work, though the headmistress said, "This year we (note the use of *we*) have not yet prepared syllabuses; we have to discover the needs of the children before we can do that." In another school a teacher in charge of a new class which was obviously working happily and purposefully admitted that she had no syllabus. "How could I have?" She asked, "for these children are quite different from those of last year." In most of the primary schools I visited, absence of rigid, written curricula, so far from interfering with their efficiency, appeared to promote it.

Curricula are more rigid in secondary schools in England. Generally they are organised on a subject basis. The class teacher therefore makes way for the specialist who teaches his subject and only his subject throughout a range of classes. These specialists tend to work rigidly within the boundaries of their subjects, and therefore seldom point to connections between what they teach and what their colleagues teach. A curriculum so organised offers no choices to children: it is like a narrow corridor which restricts their mental movements.

The sharp contrast which I observed between the flexibility of primary and the rigidity of secondary curricula, raised for me these two questions. First, does the flexibility of the primary curriculum make for better learning?—make for the acquisition with greater certainty and articulation of more knowledge, even if that knowledge is not organised on a subject basis?—Second, does the freer atmosphere of the primary school produce more "rounded" persons? persons, that is, who can exercise their own initiative, make their own choices and get along with their fellows? For us in democratic countries, these are important questions. Ours is a growing democracy: what type of citizens do we really want and what kind of educational system must we therefore devise?



education today

Enrolment Drive in Orissa

To improve enrolment in Primary schools in the State the Government of Orissa have decided to launch a State-wide enrolment drive for a week which will be conducted both by official and non-official agencies. A uniform programme will be organised in every Primary school of the State by Village Drive Committees to be constituted for the purpose. The programme includes door-to-door canvassing by volunteers to persuade parents to send their wards to school, processions and rallies by students, public meetings, and cultural programmes.

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Orientation Course in Basic Education

An Orientation Course in Basic Education was organised by the Directorate of Education, Delhi in March, 1960 to impart training to the Primary school teachers of the New Delhi Municipal Committee and Municipal Corporation of Delhi.

The following topics were discussed during the one-week course :—(1) principles and scope of Basic education; (2) implementation of Basic education system; (3) administrative and organisational problems concerning Basic education.

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Primary Education in Himachal Pradesh

Preparations are under way in Himachal Pradesh to introduce free and compulsory education for children in the age group 6—11 years. A pilot project was started in Renuka *tehsil* as an experimental measure and about 250 new schools were opened in the Territory for the purpose.

The Administration is also reorganising

the Primary and Middle schools in the Territory according to Basic pattern, which have been provided with craft material. Recently eight Middle schools have been converted into Senior Basic schools.

* * *

Primary and Basic Education in West Bengal

West Bengal Government sanctioned a scheme of establishing 18 pre-Basic schools, 205 Junior Basic schools and 40 Senior Basic schools in rural and urban areas of the State. 240 Primary schools with 480 teachers for schoolless villages in rural areas were also sanctioned.

A scheme of "Improved Accommodation for Primary School" with a total estimated cost of Rs. 35,90,781 was sanctioned by Government. Three thousand five hundred and fifty-six units of Primary schools will be benefited by this scheme. Under the scheme of "Essential Accommodation for Women Teachers," 57 units of quarters were sanctioned.

* * *

Secondary Education in Rajasthan

The Government of Rajasthan are making efforts to develop Secondary education in the State by bringing about a closer adjustment of the contents of the curriculum to individual and social needs. Stress is laid on improving the quality of education by recruiting better qualified teachers, organising pilot projects for introducing better methods of teaching and objective tests and providing better facilities for study, residence and general well-being of students.

The following table gives the State's progress in Secondary education during

the first four years of the Second Five-Year Plan:

<i>Type of institutions</i>	<i>No. of institutions at the end of 1st Plan</i>	<i>No. of institutions at the end of 4th year of 2nd Plan</i>	<i>Targets proposed for 5th year of 2nd Plan</i>
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Multipurpose Higher Secondary Schools	28	207	36
2. High Schools	245	237	7 for girls only
3. Senior Basic Schools	14	46	20
4. Middle Schools	892	1,162	86

To maintain the principle of consolidation at this selective stage of education, the process of starting more and more Multipurpose Higher Secondary schools has been arrested. The emphasis is to provide more streams to consolidate the existing Multipurpose Higher Secondary schools to make them better equipped institutions. Among the steps aimed at improving the quality of education are : introduction of terminal tests, at least three in a year, besides the half-yearly and annual examinations; maintenance of cumulative records; establishment of Science clubs in selected institutions; giving more Science courses to a large number of schools; provision of educational and vocational guidance for Multipurpose and Higher Secondary schools by establishing a State Bureau; improving the quality of the staff.

The Education Department organises each year about eight seminars for the improvement of teaching in English, Hindi, Science and Social Studies in Secondary schools as well as for toning up the general efficiency of the institutions. The Extension Services branches of two

teachers' training colleges at Bikaner and Udaipur also organise forums, study groups, open-air sessions, and seminars-cum-workshop courses for the benefit of the teachers.

Efforts are also being made to expand girls' education in the State by providing incentives to the students and offering special facilities to the training of lady teachers.

* * *

Secondary Education in Delhi

All High schools in Delhi—both Government and Aided—are proposed to be converted into Higher Secondary schools from the session starting from July 15, 1960. This step will be in pursuance of the implementation of the scheme of having a uniform Higher Secondary system in Delhi. The total number of schools proposed to be covered under this scheme is 24.

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Secondary Education in West Bengal

During the first quarter of the year, West Bengal Government sanctioned conversion of 43 Class-X schools into Class-XI schools with Humanities only. Sanction was also accorded for the conversion of 23 Class-XI schools with Humanities and 17 Class-X schools into Class-XI schools with diversified courses. Twenty-two Class-XI schools with diversified courses would also have one more additional course.

A total grant of Rs. 36,09,375 was set apart for the development of 54 schools under the scheme of "Assistance for Teaching in Science" @ Rs. 43,750 per school, and 95 schools under the scheme of "Improvement of Teaching in Existing Schools" @ Rs. 13,125 per school.

To provide residential accommodation for the teachers of Secondary schools, especially in the rural areas, 87 units of teachers' quarters were sanctioned to 67 Secondary schools costing Rs. 7,91,252. The State Government also sanctioned grants for the construction of hostels and

improvement of libraries and reading rooms in Secondary schools.

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Improving Standard of English in Schools in Madras

Recently the Madras Government accepted the proposals submitted by the British Council for the conduct of a campaign for the improvement of the standard of teaching of English in schools. The salient features of the scheme are:—

- (i) A task force of five Senior Officers and ten Junior Officers will conduct primary training courses, each of three weeks' duration for a group of 50 teachers drawn from educational institutions in a local area. Three such training courses will be run, one in each of the second, third and fourth months of the scheme. The first month will be spent in selecting junior members of the task force, training them and preparing for the running of the primary course. The junior members will continue to receive training from the senior members during the running of the primary courses and will also help the senior members in the running of the courses. Ultimately the junior members will themselves become senior members of other task forces.
- (ii) From out of the 50 trainees in each primary training course, 30 will be chosen and divided into six groups of five each. Each of these groups will then conduct secondary training course of fairly long duration for teachers of English in its local area. These courses will be conducted over week-ends and for short spells at a time so that the normal working of the schools in the area will not be disturbed. Each secondary course will be for roughly 30 trainees.
- (iii) The fourth week of every month in which the primary training

courses are run will be spent by the members of the task force in preparing for the next course. At the end of the first primary course, one of the senior members of the task force and two of the junior members will detach themselves from the main task force and will carry on follow-up work which will involve supervision and guidance of the secondary courses run by the trainees of the primary courses.

- (iv) At the beginning of the fifth month an assessment of the working of the scheme will be undertaken and decisions taken as to the continuance of the scheme and possible modifications in its working. During this month the primary course trainees running the secondary courses will also come back to the headquarters of the task force for conferring with and receiving guidance from the members of the latter.

* * *

Refresher Course for English Teachers in Bihar

Bihar Education Department in collaboration with the British Council, conducted a refresher course for training English teachers of State Basic and Middle schools, in February this year. The course lasted for three weeks. The estimated cost of the course was Rs. 3,700. This was aimed at improving the standard of teaching English which was made compulsory for classes VI and VII from January, 1959.

Training of Teachers in West Bengal

Under a State-sponsored scheme the Government of West Bengal accorded sanction for the establishment of three new Junior Basic Training colleges with 360 seats, one new Junior Basic Training college for 60 trainees under the Refugee Rehabilitation Scheme, and one new Basic Training college for 60 under-graduate women.

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Vocational and Educational Guidance in Mysore

A Bureau for Vocational and Educational Guidance has been set up at the Directorate of Education, Mysore. It is conducting a short term course at Bangalore for training 30 Higher Secondary teachers at a cost of Rs. 8,600. The Bureau will conduct such courses regularly.

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Seminar of the Heads and Educational Officers in Delhi

A one-week seminar of the Heads of schools and Educational Officers was organised in Delhi in March, 1960.

The topics discussed at the seminar were :—(1) testing and evaluation in school examinations; (2) high incidence of failures in the final examination—causes and remedies; (3) the measures to improve standards of attainment in Secondary schools; (4) library work and developing reading habits among students; and (5) home work and correction work.

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State Education Officers Meet at Lucknow

The State Education Officers' Association of Uttar Pradesh met at Lucknow in a two-day session. It discussed and adopted resolutions in matters concerning ways and means to bring about quality instruction, to establish more effective and useful human relationship between the teacher and the taught, to give better facilities to educational leaders, to introduce new policies and execute new programmes and to encourage educational workers at all levels to take initiative in respective areas where decentralization will be most desirable.

One of the important features of the session was the participation of retired officers and their active contribution to discussions. An important decision taken was to start zonal branches of the Association with regional headquarters as their centres.

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U. P. State Educational Exhibition

U.P. State Educational Exhibition, the fifth of its kind, was held this year in Varanasi. The stalls exhibited children's manufacture of toys, models, and charts of wood, metal, plasticine, clay and other material, working models of machines and scientific apparatuses, children's works of art, productions of industrial craft classes, children's journals and rare educational literature, and results of researches carried out in various school subjects, Adult education and Physical education techniques and in the history of freedom movement. The exhibition attracted many visitors including parents, teachers, legislators, educationists and school children.

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Seventh Meeting of the National Council for Rural Higher Education

The seventh meeting of the National Council for Rural Higher Education was inaugurated by Dr. K. L. Shrivastava, Union Minister of Education, on March 23, 1960 at New Delhi. In his inaugural address, the Education Minister stressed on the definite and specialised role of the students of Rural Higher education institutes in the development schemes of the country.

The National Council examined the employment position of graduates and diploma holders who had passed out of the 11 Rural Institutes in the country. It was noted that almost all the students in engineering and agricultural courses and about 50% in the Diploma course had found employment. To widen their scope of employment, the members recommended that each institute should set up an agency which would collect information regarding employment opportunities, and work as a liaison between the students and employing agencies.

The Council agreed to the setting up of small committees to conduct effective assessment of the various technical courses conducted in the Rural Institutes. The appointment of such committees, it was pointed out, would help maintain suitable standards as well as evaluate the success of the institutes in terms of the aims of the scheme.

Members of the Council approved the programme for seminars and workshops in home science, extension in social welfare, cooperation, social education, agricultural education and civil and rural engineering.

It was agreed that short-term courses for non-officials should be introduced in Rural Institutes in cooperation with the Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation for the training of workers at *Panchayat* and District levels.

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THE FOREIGN SCENE

Vacation Courses for Teachers in U. K.

The Ministry of Education, U. K. has arranged short vacation courses for teachers to widen their field of interest and knowledge.

Space exploration, astronomy, marine navigation, photolithography, radio and television servicing and the welfare of overseas students—these are some of the subjects listed for Easter and summer holiday courses.

A course on "lightweight" camping will take teachers into remote areas of the Lake District. This course is designed to give experience of bivouacking and mobile camping in small groups and varied types of terrain. Also during the Easter holidays, secondary school teachers will be on a course of nautical studies, which includes marine chartwork and small-boat sailing on the tidal reaches of the Thames. A summer course in archaeology will find teachers busy on a "dig" in Kent, with opportunities for special interest studies of their own on coins, pottery and inscriptions

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Education in Albania

At the end of World War II, Albania had only 655 schools with a total attendance of 58,200. Today, there are 2,754 schools and nearly 2,30,000 Primary, Secondary and College students, not to mention evening and correspondence classes.

These facts were stressed by the Albanian Vice-Minister of Education and Culture in

a recent interview. "In 1945", he said, "nearly 85 per cent of the population of Albania were still illiterate. Nowadays, there is scarcely a man or woman under 40 who cannot read or write."

Started during the war, in the underground, the campaign against illiteracy has developed on a broad scale, particularly since 1949. Special schools, study groups and evening classes were set up in towns and rural areas. Often parents attended the same school as their children, the latter occupying the building during the day, the former in the evening after work.

"Four years of primary schooling have been compulsory for some time", the Minister added, "and our immediate object now is to extend the period of compulsory education to seven years for the whole country. For this we need teachers, and they are being trained in ten special colleges: 9,000 teachers graduated from these colleges during 1957-58 as against 1,600 in 1938."

As regards vocational training, attendance figures have almost doubled in the last eight years, rising from 3,815 in 1950 to 6,621 in 1958. There are now 13 technical schools offering courses in 35 different subjects.

In higher education, the National University of Tirana, created since the war, offers courses in 15 subjects.

A special effort is also being made to develop workers' education. A network of evening schools and correspondence courses has been established throughout the country to help workers improve their position professionally and extend their general education. Twenty thousand workers are registered for these courses. Special leave with pay is granted to enable workers to sit for examinations. (Unesco).

* * *

Study Abroad

The new edition of *Study Abroad*, Unesco's international handbook on educational exchange, which includes statistical surveys showing the distribution of students studying abroad, shows that there were 1,80,000 foreign students in institutions of higher

education throughout the world during 1957-58—an increase of 15,000 over the previous year.

Six countries accounted for more than three-fifths of the total number of foreign students: United States—43,193, France—17,176, Federal Republic of Germany—13,916, United Kingdom—11,276, U.S.S.R.—11,266, Argentina—9,267. Substantial increases in the number of foreign students enrolled were recorded in the Federal Republic of Germany, in Austria, and in Switzerland.

A table shows the countries of origin of foreign students studying in 18 selected countries. Foremost among these are : Greece—6,609, the Federal Republic of Germany and the German Democratic Republic—6,255, Canada—6,215, U.S.A.—5,795, India—4,966, the Republic of China and the Chinese People's Republic—4,929, Korea—4,849.

The handbook lists 90,000 individual opportunities for fellowships, scholarships and travel grants for study in 1959-60. (Unesco)

* * *

W.C.O.T.P. Asian Regional Conference

What teachers in Asia can do to maintain and improve the physical and mental health of the children entrusted to their care was the principal subject of the Asian Regional Conference sponsored by the World Confederation of Organisations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP). The Conference was held in Kuala Lumpur, Malaya in April, 1960.

The meeting discussed procedures and programmes for a nine-man Asian Regional Council whose establishment was approved in principle by the WCOTP World Assembly last August.

The Conference examined the relations between WCOTP and Unesco at the international level, and between each organisation and the National Commission for Unesco

in its country; a report on salary negotiations machinery; implementation of a professional code for teachers adopted at the 1959 WCOTP Assembly; and the work of WCOTP subject matter committees.

* * *

High School Curricula in the United States

The school system in the United States represents one logical structure. It is one continuous ladder from the first grade of the Primary school on through the last year of the Secondary school, when the High school diploma is awarded. All the children stay together in the same school, the Secondary school being comprehensive in its curriculum.

There are no large educational traffic stations, as in European school systems, at which the moving masses of children have to be examined, sorted and parted for different types of Secondary schools. In the United States the one Secondary school is "the common school" for all, just as is the Primary school. The right to attend is not subject to examinations.

The total number of years of schooling from first grade through High school is twelve, the child entering at 6 and graduating at 17 or 18. Education is by law a State responsibility, not a Federal responsibility in the United States, and each State has its own compulsory school attendance law. The common national pattern is compulsory education until age 16 or until high school graduation, whichever comes first.

Special High schools, such as commercial and technical High schools, which place greater emphasis on a specialised curriculum than is possible in the usual High school, are few in number.

The pattern of the 12-year educational system is: six years' Elementary (or Primary), three years' Junior High school, and three years' Senior High school.

The pattern of education is uniform throughout the nation. There is a national synthesis of curriculum.

† Condensed from an article by Harold Spears made available by Unesco Clearing House, Paris.

The unique feature of the Secondary school curriculum in the United States is the selection of subjects by the students. Since it is a common school for all, approximately half of the student's curriculum represents required subjects which all the students take and about half of this curriculum is made up of subjects he selects himself to serve his own immediate interests and his future college or occupational plans.

The existence of the common comprehensive High school with its elective system means that curriculum revision is not limited to adult planning. The students themselves, in their election of subjects bring about a change in curriculum, emphasis in one area increasing and another decreasing over a given period of time. The elective system has created the counsellor's position in the Secondary schools in recent years.

Some of the current developments in the High school curriculum are :

1. A decided emphasis is there upon the study of science and mathematics. Curriculum planners in the schools are revising the more traditional science course of physics and chemistry to include new knowledge and scientific fields of endeavour.

2. There is a growing concern for "the gifted" student, which is evident both in the literature and in school practice. In a few States there is emerging the practice of permitting brighter students to leave the Secondary school and enter the college ahead of time, examinations or special courses being provided to help in the selection.

3. Another trend, which began some time ago and is continuing unabated, is the tendency to balance the so-called cultural courses of the High school with those representing the immediate application of learnings in life situations faced by the learners. A good example is driver education. So menacing are the automobile accidents, the typical High school is now teaching students how to drive properly.

4. The core programme again is popular as a concept. Its basic feature is the integration of two or more related subjects ordinarily taught separately. A typical example is American history and American literature.

5. A pronounced trend, which has great curriculum implications, is the tendency for youth to remain in school longer.

6. This tendency to extend the education of the average youth is effecting a gradual curriculum change. Since vocational and other occupational training should be offered as near as possible to the leaving time of the students in question with longer tenure in school there is a gradual shifting of this type of course upward on the grade ladder. Such courses once offered at 10th grade are now more likely to come at 11th or 12th grade, and in these school systems with the additional 13th and 14th grades such training may well be shifted to these years. The gaps below are being filled with more courses in general education.

7. Another development in respect of curriculum in the Secondary school, as well as in the Elementary school, in the United States is the growing popularity of curriculum planning through in-service training programmes. It is a cooperative study of curriculum content and methods of instruction by teaching and the administrative staffs in an organised manner.

8. In curriculum study is also noted the growing popularity of the consideration of "how to teach" along with "what to teach". Since the Secondary school pattern is that of a common comprehensive High school, there is the continued challenge not to lose the individual pupil in the mass operation.

9. Evident in a number of school districts is a combined school-work programme for High school seniors, often called the 4-4 programme, four hours in school and four out on the job.

10. Finally, a good amount of stress is also laid on extra-curricular activities.

In conclusion, the curriculum trends in Secondary education in the United States reflect acceptance of, and gradual change within, the national pattern of the existing Secondary school. There is no indication that this basic structure of one continuous school ladder for all will be questioned in providing curriculum changes. There are no radical proposals or practices in the offing.



book reviews

Iqbal—His Art and Thought: By S.A. Vahid;
Published by John Murray, London; 1959

This book is a revised, enlarged and considerably improved edition of Mr. Vahid's earlier book with the same title, published in 1944 by Sheikh Mohd. Ashraf of Lahore, well-known publisher of Islamic literature. It sets out to study with care certain important aspects of the ideas as well as the poetic art of Iqbal, who is easily one of the most significant thinkers and poets of this century. A number of books on Iqbal have appeared during the last two decades since his death, but a majority of them are not of great merit. Mr. Vahid's book, however, makes a useful addition to the growing literature on the subject and should be welcomed by all students of Iqbal's poetry and philosophy.

In this book, the author has given a brief but interpretative biography of Iqbal—in which passing reference is also made to his role as an educationist—discussed his central idea of the nature of the human ego and its development, traced the sources of his inspiration and examined the relationship of his philosophy with important thinkers of the East and the West by whom he had been specially influenced. In the latter part, he has examined, with sensitiveness, the different expressions of his poetic art as well as his prose writings. In addition to chapters on his *lyrics* and *mathnāvis* which were included in the first edition, new chapters have been added in the present edition dealing with his satire, elegies, chronograms and quatrains. They are rather sketchy and some of them are not really significant. But they make the treatment of his poetry more complete.

Mr. Vahid has brought out clearly how Iqbal links up with artistic delicacy the discussion of contemporary problems with eter-

nal values so that his message is vital for today as well as the distant morrow. This is a difficult artistic challenge, but as the author points out with reference to his *magnum opus Javid Nama* "He does all this so artistically that the great epic does not contain a single line in which heaviness of thought has, in any way, infected the verse." This may well be taken as generally applicable to the whole of his poetry. He has a liveliness and originality of mind which, combined with vivacity of expression, shields his poetry from the danger of becoming 'versified philosophy'.

The author brings out, in the treatment of his ideas, both the special Muslim context of his poetry as well as its universal appeal, to which Tagore paid his tribute on the occasion of his death :—

"The death of Sir Mohd. Iqbal creates a void in literature that, like a martyr's wound, will take a very long time to heal. India, whose place in the world is too narrow, can ill-afford to miss a poet whose poetry had such a universal value."

It is not always possible to agree with the literary judgements of the author. Iqbal had a very keen and thoughtful mind and whatever he wrote—whether in poetry or prose, in Urdu or Persian or English—naturally bore the impress of his mind. But I have the feeling that Mr. Vahid overrates the literary quality of his prose writings. Also it would be difficult to agree that his Persian is the "latest Persian to which no Persian can take exception". Iqbal was steeped in a *classical* Persian which he wielded as a medium with grace and power. But surely no Iranian will regard it as an example of modern Persian.

The author has given many quotations from his Urdu and Persian poetry as well

as the prose writings, together with their translations in English. These would certainly add to the value of the book for those who do not know the original languages. But the translations, as the author frankly admits, may not do justice to the original. I am afraid, in many cases, they do not. When the next edition comes out, I hope, the author will revise them further so as to convey not merely the rich content but also the beauty and poetic flavour of the original.

K.G.S.

Issues in University Education : Edited by Charles Frankel; Published by Harper & Brothers, New York; 1959; Price \$3.95; pp. 175

The volume is a cooperative work of ten eminent educationists and scholars closely connected with universities and institutions of higher education in the United States of America. Apart from the stimulating introduction written by President Paul J. Braisted of the Edward W. Hazen Foundation and the excellent summing up of the issues in American higher education in the concluding chapter by Professor Charles Frankel, the editor of the book, it contains eight essays dealing with a wide range of topics including the background of modern universities, changing philosophies of education, the role of science and technology, democratisation of educational opportunities, the making of the scholar, his responsibilities and freedoms in the modern set up, and the relation of the university to the community and to the students. Written by eight distinguished scholars, viz., J. Robert Oppenheimer, Richard McKeon, Robert Ulich, John Hope Franklin, Robert B. Brode, Irwin T. Sanders, Robert M. Strozier and Sigmund Neumann, the essays distil the experience of scholars who have studied and worked in American universities and colleges and had thus ample opportunities of observing the trend of higher education in and outside America. They have not merely described where American education now stands but have also raised questions about the goal of its future development.

The questions that have been raised by the authors of this volume reflect three fundamental issues which have to be faced squarely

not only in the U.S.A. but also in other countries of the world. The first is the problem of harmonising the disparate traditions out of which higher education of the present day has sprung and of domesticating them within a mobile and democratic society. The second is the problem of finding adequate moral and financial support that will permit the maintenance of freedom and standard of scholarship. The third is the problem of establishing a sound relationship between a technologically oriented culture and the institutions and ideals of pure science and disinterested inquiry.

Education has, in fact, been the principal instrument of the democratisation of life in America as elsewhere in the world today. A larger proportion of the people everywhere is coming to believe that the right to a higher education is included within the general right to the pursuit of happiness. According to the prevalent trend of admissions in colleges, the American colleges within the next two decades will have to take care of about twice as many students as they have done in the past. It is certainly an admitted fact that any society will be richer if it can give greater opportunities to the intelligent elements of its members and there is a growing conviction that every individual ought to have as much schooling as his talents permit. Wherever this conviction is growing, as in India, it is creating educational problems. But the world certainly would not be better without such problems.

The changes in human ideas and behaviour are also bringing changes in the nature and type of the college student in America. According to a report of the Commission on the College Student of the American Council on Education published in October 1958, the type of student who used to be regarded as an exception is now more and more the rule. Forty per cent of all American undergraduates are now more than 21 years old. Since 1953 the number of undergraduates between 25 and 30 years of age has increased by 47 per cent, while those who are 18 or 19 years old have increased by only 30 per cent. Twenty-two per cent of all American college students are married, and according to one estimate 40 per cent

of all undergraduates in America earn more than half their college expenses. No wonder, therefore, that educationists in America feel that the Anglo-Saxon ideal of a protected and insulated educational environment makes less sense now than it once did in America.

These essays have a special importance to the scholar and educationist in India. The ideal of higher education, the type of education that will most suit the Indian environment, the responsibilities and freedom of the scholar, the democratisation of educational opportunities, the position of the university in relation to the community, the concept of a university's services to the making of a student, the size and quality of higher education, the question of general education, the dramatic rise in the number of persons seeking higher education, the mission and functions of universities, the problem of finding moral and financial support for universities, the academic freedom of universities, the student behaviour, the role of a university in dealing with the problem of tension, etc., are some of the many problems which face the Indian universities today. An understanding of the approach to similar problems in America may help those who are now shaping things in India, for, human nature, in spite of the differences of time and space, is essentially the same. There are, of course, wide and very great differences in respect of resources and opportunities between a highly industrialised country and an under-developed country. But these are differences mainly of degrees. The experience of scholars and educationists in other countries is sure to be of value to those who are planning the development of university and collegiate education in India. The essays have given a masterly analysis of the problems in America and may show the way to the realisation of the ideal propounded by Rabindranath Tagore (which is referred to in the very first sentence of the introduction) so that universities may be places.

Where words come out from the depth of truth;

Where tireless striving stretches its arms towards perfection;

Where the clear stream of reason has not lost its way into the dreary desert sand of dead habit;

Where the mind is led forward into ever-widening thought and action.

SUKUMAR BHATTACHARYA

The Function of Teaching : Edited by A. V. Judges; Published by Faber & Faber Ltd., London; 1959

The title of this book will not bear too pedagogical an interpretation for, it is, in fact, a symposium on the wider aims, purposes and functions of education and their consequences for society. A philosophy of education arises generally from two sources—the teacher, who from his experience and experiments with teaching, formulates certain observations and generalizations, and the philosopher who thinks about man, nature and society and from whose views on these follow certain incidental implications for education. It is from this latter source, largely, that this symposium is drawn. The thinkers on whom comment has been made comprise a poet, a sociologist, a theologian, two psychologists, a mystic and a divine—namely, T. S. Eliot, Karl Mannheim, Jacques Maritain, Martin Buber, Sigmund Freud, William James and William Temple. The commentators themselves are men of some distinction in education and letters.

The seven essays interpret and present views that differ in focus and conception sometimes slightly, sometimes radically. Eliot and Mannheim are both concerned with the 'democratization' of society, the change that has resulted or is anticipated to result from the spread of education to all categories of people; from this concern they emerge as taking up opposite positions. In Eliot, this social change arouses only doubt and pessimism. As Lord Rusholme admirably puts it, 'the free extension of education, which to many of us seems a self-evident good that everyone both needs and desires is met by Eliot with pessimism and doubt'. Mannheim, on the contrary, sees this change as inevitable and accepts it. At heart, he also seeks stability, but he finds a solution in a dynamic social equilibrium to be achieved by controlling and guiding

the inevitable change through social planning and education. Mannheim, no egalitarian, believes in the selection of leaders, but is concerned that opportunity should equal ability, irrespective of social origin.

While Eliot and Mannheim are taken up with the structure of society, Maritain whose Neo-Thomism is not only "credited by faith and empowered by piety" but also "constructed by reason", is appalled by the disintegration in the personality of the modern man and the vacuum created in the Western world by a bankruptcy of faith, which vacuum Marxism has stepped in to fill by deifying matter. Maritain's humanism seeks to reintegrate the human personality. His conceptions of both society and education are personalist and pluralist. Society, for him, rests on the natural law and the natural law of human nature is a moral law, and education is "the self-development of human plasticity into an integrated character under the influence of an ideal". This education is a liberal education "directed towards wisdom, centred on the humanities, aiming to develop in the people the capacity to think correctly and to enjoy truth and beauty", and is an education for freedom. Coming to the methodology of education, Maritain advocates self-activity on the part of the learner and stresses the role of play. Here, one notes (perhaps not with much surprise) that philosophies which are poles apart, like Maritain's Neo-Thomism and Dewey's Pragmatism, often strike common ground in educational methodology and practice.

Buber, on the other hand, with his almost mystical vision of education as an intuitive, insightful relation between man and man and man and god, considers at some length the teacher and pupil. Almost equal in its attention to the teacher and pupil is the chapter on Freud by Prof. Ben Morris. Ben Morris has discussed Freud's theory as a basis for religion and morality, and from this education emerges as a dynamic process, the aim of which is the attainment by the individual of a mature, creative self.

A little more may be said about Eliot for he stands on one side by himself, apart from the other six, in an important and fundamental matter. He alone rejects the two ideals in education that most people today, however

different their conceptions of man, society and god may be, and however divergent the aims they may set for education, commonly subscribe to: the wish to give to every child the chance to develop his talents to the full, irrespective of his social background and to make children develop into better citizens of a democratic community. Eliot is alarmed at the threat which the lowering of standards (that has accompanied the spread of education), the increasing specialization and the anticipated displacement of "classes" by the professional and the expert "elite" pose to the different levels of culture which obtain in society, and for the preservation of which established authority, tradition, and families or groups of families observing an unbroken continuity from generation to generation are essential. Thus alarmed, he argues (somewhat perversely, to most of us) that easy availability of education will disorganise society and debase education. While his alarm is not unreasonable and even his proposition that education should be restricted to a selected group may find sympathy with many, surely his position becomes irreconcilable to all who believe in democracy when he goes on to maintain that this group should be selected not on the basis of ability, but on the basis of social class. Yet he has frequent streaks of uncanny insight into the processes and techniques of education and his views as to its place and function in society provide a provocative challenge.

JAIPAL NANGIA

The Teacher and His Pupils: By Hubert J. Byrne; (Adapted by N. V. Manuel); Published by Oxford University Press, Bombay; 1960; Price Rs. 3-00; pp. 179.

The Primary school teacher in India is expected to carry a load of responsibility of a weight, extent and nature well beyond the capacities of a great proportion of those induced to enter the profession today. Anything which helps to clarify and simplify its nature and to equip teachers to bear the burden with greater ease is, therefore, to be welcomed. In this practical and handy little textbook for Primary teachers, the author has successfully covered many important aspects of the art of teaching.

Beginning with the aims of education, the relationship between teacher and child and the importance of preparing lessons, Mr. Byrne goes on to describe briefly the elements of educational psychology and shows how a knowledge of it may be applied to teaching methods. The bulk of the book is concerned with teaching methods and the kind of classroom behaviour appropriate to a good teacher, with many useful hints on discipline, classroom organisation, lesson planning and ways of handling the numerous little difficulties that beset a Primary teacher in his daily work. The book also deals with topics such as character formation, habit development, setting and marking examinations, objective-type tests, syllabus and time-table construction, methods of study and health education. Perhaps the most useful parts of the book to the teacher, in training or afterwards, are the questions and suggestions for discussion and practical work given at the end of every chapter and the exhaustive self-test questionnaire at the end of the book. Equally valuable are the suggestions for self-criticism and a marking scheme for the self-evaluation of lessons, which should be welcomed by every sincere teacher anxious to improve himself.

Couched in simple and lucid prose, the book is charmingly illustrated with amusing and apt line drawings by the author himself. These not only drive home every important point but serve as examples of the variety and the interest that can be provided in every lesson with no more equipment than blackboard and chalk. This is altogether a fine textbook for the Primary school teacher; the fault, if any, lies in its being perhaps too ambitious in relation to the background and equipment of the average teacher. A further defect is the lack of a good bibliography which might stimulate and guide the enthusiastic teacher interested in furthering his knowledge or improving his technique. However, if every teacher were to read and profit by this book alone it would undoubtedly be a good thing for Primary education in India.

MINA SWAMINATHAN

What is General Education: By Dr. S. Abid Husain; Published by Asia Publishing House, Bombay; 1959; pp. 82

The monograph on General Education by Dr. Abid Husain, the architect of the Aligarh pattern of General Education, is, undoubtedly, a fascinating study for all those interested in the theory and practice of General Education. The writer begins with a consideration of the purpose of General Education in the broader perspective of the purpose of Education. He defines Education as 'a process through which the intellectual and practical capacities of an individual are developed so as to make him a cultured person as well as a useful member of society'. The object of General Education, according to him, is 'the development of right attitudes, the cultivation of right habits of thought, feeling and action, and the building up of an integrated personality'. Thus he sees no antithesis between the two. But he makes no secret of the fact that the present system of education has failed to deliver the goods and hence it needs be supplemented with General Education.

The next important aspect considered by him is the problem of adjustment of General Education programme with the existing pattern of education in colleges and universities. His main recommendation in this connection is the preparation of a balanced course of General and special Education. He is also of the opinion that compulsory courses in Communication should be made part and parcel of the General Education programme. He further suggests that the present practice of prescribing three optionals of equal weightage may be replaced by one main and two subsidiary optionals. It is true no doubt that in order to achieve best results from General Education and in order to make Education more effective some such reorganization of the existing pattern of University education is essential.

The syllabus of General Education drawn up by Dr. Husain comprises basic courses in Natural Science, Social Science and Humanities. A perusal of the detailed syllabus might give the reader

the impression that it is too much theoretical and knowledge-oriented and hence too heavy for the students. As a matter of fact in General Education knowledge is not important in itself but is a means to an end. The main object of the syllabus of General Education according to the learned writer is 'the building up of an integrated personality well adjusted with the natural, social and cultural environment'. This is in keeping with the views of the University Education Commission and the General Education Study Team (1956) and is also endorsed by the eminent educationists of the country. The objectives pointed out above can only be achieved through a basic curricular programme as visualized here.

Other problems considered are provision of suitable reading material, audio-visual aids and improved methods of teaching. He deals at length with the philosophical problem of the aims of teaching method for General Education and stresses the need for a special method of teaching, viz., the discussion method. In this connection it may be pointed out that mere use of audio-visual materials and the discussion method is not sufficient. Lasting results can only be achieved if in the teaching of different branches of learning the special techniques of each of these branches are fully employed, e.g., laboratory experience in the teaching of physical sciences, studio experience in the teaching of fine arts and social experiences (through social surveys and service projects) in the teaching of social sciences.

Last but not the least important is his suggestion regarding the position of the teaching unit of General Education *vis-a-vis* the Departments of Studies. He considers two patterns—one being a small nucleus staff entrusted with the teaching of different areas to specialists in those areas the other being a separate Department of General Education with its own special staff. He, however, disapproves of the former pattern and favours the latter for all those institutions which provide an integrated syllabus like the one suggested by him. His disapproval of the former

pattern is borne out by the Aligarh experience where at first it was adopted but had to be given up owing to its inefficacy as a means of creating *rapprochement* between the specialist teachers and thousands of students whom they had to lecture. According to the other pattern which was later adopted at Aligarh the teachers have been assigned one or two sections of a class and they are entrusted with the responsibility for administering the whole programme of General Education at least in one area. Another point worth noting is his suggestion for establishing a Faculty of Education comprising the Departments of Education and General Education. It goes without saying that the establishment of a Faculty as visualized by him will go a long way in ensuring better functioning of the General Education programme.

Dr. Abid Husain is to be congratulated for presenting an authentic interpretation of General Education and a reasonably acceptable and practicable solution of the problems of organization and administration of General Education courses. The monograph will undoubtedly be an asset to all those interested in the practical problems of the implementation of the scheme of General Education in Indian universities.

S. M. ZIAUDDIN ALAVI

Authority, Responsibility and Education :

By R.S. Peters; Published by George Allen and Unwin, London; 1959; Price 12 sh. 6 d; pp. 137

One frequently comes across the complaint that social philosophy has not kept pace with the emergence of the modern social and political order. The fast pace of industrialisation and the changing face of the State has already dismantled the old social order and traditional values of life. The result is a sort of crisis in the mind of the individual and the life of the community—particularly in the 'advanced' societies of the West. In the book under review, the author has taken upon himself the task of analysing certain basic though elusive concepts like 'authority', 'morality', 'responsibility' and 'education'. There can be no quick answers to these problems

but the author has, by the application of the analytical techniques of modern philosophy, clarified a lot of dead wood surrounding these concepts. His treatment is scientific and the ideas are refreshing.

The book, which is based upon a number of talks delivered by the author, is divided into three parts. In Part I the attention of the reader is drawn to some of the furrowed features of authority's changing face. The author describes the modern society as the "fatherless society", where trust, faith, obedience—all these attitudes appropriate to authority—have either been shrugged off or dissipated in a diluted form towards some central synthetic substance. To fill in the void have emerged two important factors, viz., morality and science. Of course, morality has lost its traditional content and like science, it is also subjected to the test of rationality. While conceding the advantages of the rational approach to the question of authority, the author laments its unintended consequences in relation to the structure and exercise of authority in family. In Part II, the author has described the contemporary malaise, which shows itself in the denial of responsibility based on half-digested theories about the cause of actions and standards. The author deprecates the tendency of believing that once we can point out to a cause for our action, we can use it as a defence for all our actions. This is the negation of the very basis of responsibility. In Part III of the book, the author has tried to answer the question "What should be the aim of the educator in the rapidly changing world?" The author has not unnecessarily indulged himself in the controversy whether education is more concerned with intellect or with moral virtues. According to him the conflict has more to do with procedure than with aims of education. As he has succinctly put it, "in the sphere both of intellect and character it is the manner that maketh a man."

One may not agree with all the views of the author but one has to agree with the publishers, when they claim that the book

"will contribute something towards the clear-headedness of commonsense people."

R. K. MISRA

Teaching the Language Arts : By Willard F. Tidyman & Marguerite Butterfield; Published by McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York; 1959

This is a stimulating book for teachers entrusted with the care of small boys and girls and their development in the language arts.

Language art is a new term that has come into use during the last few years. Language arts include home and school situations, attitudes, abilities and skills and language experiences.

Language experiences may be divided into oral communication, listening, written communication, dramatization, choral thinking and creative experiences. Higher up in the scale come specific study and research.

Attitudes, abilities and skills have been sub-divided into hand-writing, spelling, written mechanics, speech, grammar, usage, sentences, vocabulary, organisation, content and lastly, attitudes. The book is a skilful accumulation of experiences arranged under these heads.

The book can be profitably used by language teachers who have to arrive at an understanding of the basic principles of the arts of language. These principles concern the place that language occupies in the growth and development of the child and the processes that facilitate this growth. They also concern the differentiation of work to meet individual differences as well as the techniques and procedures essential to the implementation of a detailed and concrete day-to-day programme.

The primary functions of language are clearly defined as communication, self-expression and thinking.

Command of language is an important factor in the development of the total personality of the child. It gives confidence,

satisfaction and security in meeting many live situations.

The concept of language as a learning task is a complex of inter-related and inter-dependent experiences and elements in which growth proceeds simultaneously but in varying degrees, dependent on points of particular emphasis and interest. The teacher's job in handling various elements is to direct growth in a single element or ability while keeping it in its proper relationship to other abilities and to the total language situation of which it is a part.

When immediate physical needs have been met and a degree of maturity reached, the child becomes absorbed in the intriguing task of making the acquaintance of a great variety of things. Asking questions is the characteristic type of language activity at this stage. "The three-year old asked 376 questions during the day." In enquiry the emphasis shifts from use of language for communication to the use of language for thinking.

Another kind of language experience which begins to take shape early is dramatic play. Words accompany actions.

Growth in performing an increasing variety of language experiences is paralleled by growth in the component abilities and skills. Factors in growth are maturation and stimulation by experience. Maturation concerns the natural development of speech functions and processes of thinking.

Training children in language is training in living, in understanding and in getting along with people. A rich environment of varied experiences is essential to good language development.

The teacher should attempt to set up a programme of work that is consistent with natural order in the development of experiences, abilities and skills. Those are to be adjusted to capacity. Problems are to be recognized as characteristic of a particular age grade or maturity level.

The book will be of use particularly for teachers of English teaching children whose mother-tongue is English, as all examples

are derived from the experiences and practices of children and teachers whose mother-tongue is English. Teachers of Hindi and other Indian languages will do well to collect and systematize their experiences of teaching Hindi and specific problems that are connected therewith. The development of a child can be best carried through with the help of its mother-tongue.

RAGHU VIRA

White and Coloured : By Michael Banton; Published by Jonathan Cape, London, 1959; Price 21sh; pp. 223

The English were one of the most homogeneous nations in the world and had no minority problem. Many British authors could, therefore, point an accusing finger at other nations, write learned treatises on the treatment meted out to minorities in India, United States, South Africa, etc. and with a highly superior attitude suggest solutions for these problems.

The wheel has turned full circle. Today Britain faces a minority problem—the minority consisting of "coloured" people, mainly from the British West Indies and a few from India and Pakistan.

These coloured citizens do not receive fair treatment at the hands of the White majority. Some time ago, we read of race riots not in the Southern States of the United States but in Britain! What were the causes for this strained relationship between the two races? Part of the answer is found in this book.

Banton starts with an analysis of definitions in Part I. In Part II, he gives a historical account of the position of the coloured people in Britain. He describes fully some of the absurd theories put forward by reputed scientists during certain periods for considering coloured people as an inferior race and how these theories have been exploded by scientists and sociologists of a later date. In Part III, the present situation is described and in Part IV, certain fundamental propositions are put forward by the author.

The author suggests that to a great extent, the prejudice against coloured labour is of a local nature; that local chapters of National Trade Unions might under the mistaken notion of being deprived of employment opportunities at a later date, be prejudiced against the introduction or extension of employment opportunities for coloured labour. He also suggests that National Trade Unions and employers can, by adopting a positive attitude, overcome the prejudice of the local community in this respect.

The author also points out that to a considerable extent, the conflict between the White and Coloured peoples in Britain may be due to sexual jealousy *i.e.* that many of the White people are afraid of the competition of coloured peoples in securing the attention of the female sex. It is not clear why there should be such a widespread fear since it is a well-known fact that there are more women in Britain than men. It would appear that this is one place where statistics cannot give the answer and that psychology can be the only science which can find solutions. While there is really no reason for such a fear, it is an admitted fact that such a fear does really prevail among a large section of the population.

The author has suggested that while colour prejudice does exist, it is not as widespread as is believed. Further, it would also appear that colour prejudice, particularly among landlords, hotel-keepers etc., might exist more because of the fear of loss of 'white' custom—a fear which has been proved more imaginary than real—rather than because they were really prejudiced against the coloured man. It would appear from this inquiry that many of the subjects interviewed thought that others were more prejudiced than themselves. This conclusion though new to the lay-man, is not surprising to trained sociologists who have come across many instances where people behave in a particular way, not because they themselves really desire to behave in that way, but because they are afraid of what others would think of their actions and hence adopt an attitude which they think is in harmony with the supposed attitude of the community. Banton's final question as to why coloured people should so often be

shabbily treated when the vast majority of individual Britons are favourably disposed towards them, is a fair statement of the whole problem. The answer, as I can see it, is that the British people while not individually prejudiced are prejudiced as a group and this is a paradox which the statistician and the sociologist have many times come across.

Banton has analysed the problem itself but has refrained from suggesting solutions for the problem. Legal sanctions and an education campaign in the schools for the young and through the press, radio and television for the adult groups would help solve the problem. Perhaps the author will discuss this in another volume.

This book is a very worthy contribution for answering questions which are on everybody's lips. Banton has made a thorough and impartial study of the problem and for this reason, it is especially commended to students of Sociology, Economics and Political Science.

KAMESWARA RAU

Discovering Music with Young Children :
By Eunice Bailey; Published by Methuen and Co. Ltd, London

The core of the idea underlying modern teaching is that growth is spontaneous and can achieve a national flowering if guided by its own force at every stage of development and in each field of knowledge. This demands of the teacher a fine appraisal of individual talent in each sphere of children's activity so as to sensitively construct the teaching situation for conscious creativeness.

In this book Eunice Bailey discards all effete and conventional procedures of teaching music to young children and conceives her method afresh from the above directive.

She starts from the beginning on a voyage of exploration, and having discovered the child, wanders with him in the wonderland of sounds and sound instruments to discover their potentiality for expressing his inner feelings and emotional experiences.

With keen insight into children's instincts and consummate craftsmanship in teaching

she directs their imagery and rich symbolic play into coherent patterns in music, painting, poetry, drama, writing of music and constructive living.

Gradually the realization of the part played by music and allied arts in the development of children grows on the teacher. If the child is transformed in multiple ways, mainly he turns from his preoccupation with emotional life and anchors his unruly longings and passions without creating war between them. In course of time he approximates a scientist and launches his campaign of inquiry into the how and why of sound and sound combination, and begins to understand the terms fast slow, loud soft, high low, heavy light, gay and sad, and makes his own analogies. A growing interest in the works of great composers urges him to study standard compositions and thus answer many questions covering wider field.

Miss Bailey's book is not a scientific treatise on the methodology of teaching music. It is more descriptive in conception. The strategy she adopts in developing the child is to follow up his natural interests and the drives behind his work and play as well as the devices used by him to solve technical problems encountered. It is modestly written and reveals a belief in the creative spirit of man and the goodness of communal life which finds inspiration, relaxation and refreshment in music. It does not postulate that art, as such, is of prime importance. To Miss Bailey it is a means towards the ideal of good life.

The book throws many sidelights on developmental activities of children and affords valuable insights to the practising teachers of music, dance, drama and mime etc. Its utility to the Indian teachers, however, is somewhat limited owing to its texture being woven round Western music.

Its core concept nevertheless is universal in application and has wide implications for reform in approach to the teaching of art and music—both Eastern and Western.

The collection of nursery rhymes and folk songs and folk music appended with code offers guidance to teachers of western music in the compilation of their anthology

for the classroom and in the selection of pertinent items for daily use according to the age and characteristics of children.

The book is an inspiring document and makes a valuable addition to the personal collection of lovers of children and their music.

ANNIE COELHO

Home and School, February, 1960; St. Thomas School, New Delhi; Price Re. 1.00; pp. 29

"Home and School" is the mouth-piece of the Parent-Teacher Association of the St. Thomas School, New Delhi. This is the inaugural issue which contains many articles of interest in addition to a symposium, "Is Homework Necessary?" contributed to by a parent, a teacher and a student. Almost all the contributions, that have been made either by parents or by teachers, give an insight into some of the vital questions affecting what is the common interest of both teacher and parent—the child. To stimulate this kind of thinking is, according to the sponsors of the Association, the most important aim of the journal.

There can be no doubt about the necessity and importance of parent-teacher co-operation in the growth of the child into the right type of adult. This journal, which seems to be the first of its kind, is, therefore, a step in the right direction. If the journal deserves a lot of encouragement, it also requires some improvement in the selection of types, inking and proof correction.

ABUL HASAN

कामायनी की व्याख्यात्मक आलोचना : लेखक—विश्वनाथ लाल 'शैदा'; प्रकाशक—हिन्दी प्रचारक पुस्तकालय, वाराणसी; मूल्य 8.00; 1959

यह निर्विवाद है कि कामायनी आधुनिक हिन्दी साहित्य का युग-काव्य है। प्रसाद-साहित्य की सर्व प्रमुख कृति में कामायनी ने साहित्य क्षेत्र में प्रचुर अलोइन की सृष्टि की थी। कामायनी का आधार एक ओर भारतीय दर्शन की पृष्ठ भूमि है और दूसरी ओर ऐतिहासिक जल-प्लावन की घटना द्वारा मानव संस्कृति के प्रतिष्ठान की कथा है। कुछेक आलोचकों ने काव्य

के कथानक को एक रूपक मान लिया है और बहुतों ने इसमें ऐतिहासिक दार्शनिकता का स्वरूप देखा है। कामायनी के प्रमुख नायक 'मनु' के माध्यम से और चिन्ता, आशा, श्रद्धा, काम, वासना, लज्जा आदि रूपकों से लेखक ने पूरे मानविक, मानसिक और प्राकृतिक कर्म पद्धति का दार्शनिक विश्लेषण किया है।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में कामायनी की व्याख्यात्मक आलोचना की गई है। लेखक ने आमुख में कामायनी के दार्शनिक और ऐतिहासिक पृष्ठभूमि पर विस्तार पूर्वक विचार किया है। प्राचीन वैदिक और संस्कृति साहित्य और पाश्चात्य आलोचकों और विचारकों की सहायता से कामायनी की भूमिका को समझाने का सुन्दर प्रयत्न किया है विशेषतः 'जल-प्लावन' और काव्यात्मक तत्वों के समावेश का विशद विवरण है। संस्कृत के महा-काव्यों के साथ और महाकाव्यों के लक्षणों का साम्यक विवरण कामायनी के पाठकों और आलोचकों के लिए उपयोगी है।

मूल ग्रन्थ में कामायनी के छंदों की व्याख्या, विश्लेषण और शब्दावली के अर्थ विस्तृत रूप से दिये गये हैं। प्रत्येक छन्द के विश्लेषण में भारतीय और पाश्चात्य कवियों और आलोचकों के विचारों से तुलनात्मक आलोचना और विश्लेषण किया है। इस दिशा में संस्कृत और अंग्रेजी के उद्धृतियों का प्रयोग व्याख्यात्मक आलोचना के लिए उपयुक्त ही बन पड़ा है।

कामायनी पर समय-समय पर अनेक टीका और समालोचना पुस्तकें प्रकाशित हो चुकी हैं किन्तु इनी गिनी दो-चार आलोचना पुस्तकों को छोड़कर आधुनिक आलोचना पद्धतियों के अनुसार कामायनी की आलोचना का नितान्त अभाव है। यह पुस्तक इस दिशा में अच्छा प्रयत्न है। हिन्दी साहित्य में आलोचना और टीका की साधारण पुस्तकों की भीड़ में यह पुस्तक कुछ नूतनता और स्वस्थ आलोचना का स्वरूप लेकर आई है। आशा है कामायनी के अब तक प्रकाशित टीकाओं और समालोचनाओं में यह पुस्तक अपना स्थान बना लेगी। हिन्दी समालोचना साहित्य में प्रस्तुत पुस्तक एक सुन्दर संयोजना है। कालेज और यूनिवर्सिटी के विद्यार्थियों के लिए पुस्तक अत्यन्त उपयोगी सिद्ध होगी।

छपाई और गेटअप स्वच्छ है।

कार्तिक चन्द्र दत्त

१९वीं तथा २०वीं सदी में यूरोप-मूल लेखक—इ. लिप्सन; अनुवादक—डा० मथुरालाल शर्मा; प्रकाशक—गया प्रसाद एण्ड संस, आगरा; पृष्ठ संख्या 413; 1960

श्री लिप्सन द्वारा लिखित Europe in the 19th & the 20th Centuries उच्च कक्षा के विद्यार्थियों में काफी प्रचलित रही है जिसका स्पष्ट प्रमाण है पुस्तक के सात संस्करण। फ्रांस की राज्यक्रान्ति के बाद के यूरोप का सम्बद्ध वृत्तान्त लिखने वालों में अनेक प्रभूत विद्वान हैं, किन्तु इस पुस्तक का उन रचनाओं में श्रेष्ठ स्थान है जिन्होंने यूरोप के इतिहास के अध्ययन के लिए एक नवीन दृष्टिकोण प्रस्तुत किया है। यहां ऐतिहासिक घटनाओं के वर्णन की अपेक्षा राजनैतिक एवं आर्थिक विचारधाराओं के विकास को प्रधानता मिली है। यहां राजवंशों के युद्ध वंशावली, राज्यविस्तार आदि का उल्लेख केवल जन-जीवन की राजनैतिक, आर्थिक एवं सामाजिक परम्पराओं के तारतम्य बनाए रखने के लिए हुआ है। लेखक ने अपनी 'भूमिका' में भी कहा है कि उसका दृष्टिकोण कथात्मक न होकर विवेचनात्मक है।

हिन्दी में इस प्रकार के इतिहास लिखने का प्रयत्न बहुत कम हुआ है। मूल लेखक ने इस संस्करण में प्रथम एवं द्वितीय महायुद्ध के बीच का प्रकरण जोड़कर पुस्तक की उपादेयता को बढ़ा दिया है। यह अनुवाद-विद्वान एवं विद्यार्थी-दोनों के बीच समान स्वागत की अपेक्षा करता है। अनुवाद प्रस्तुत कर डा० मथुरालाल शर्मा ने सराहनीय कार्य किया है।

मूल पुस्तक में श्री लिप्सन की भाषा जटिल एवं क्लिष्ट है। बड़े-बड़े वाक्यों के प्रयोग के कारण भाषा की दुरुहता और भी बढ़ गई है। डा० शर्मा ने अनुवाद की भाषा को सरल बनाने का स्तुत्य प्रयास किया है। उर्दू के शब्दों का कहीं कहीं प्रयोग भी है किन्तु अप्रयासजनित, सम्पूर्ण अनुवाद में हिन्दी भाषा की प्राञ्जलता अक्षुण्ण दिखाई देती है।

मुद्रण और प्रकाशन मध्यम श्रेणी के हैं। कहीं कहीं अक्षर और मात्राएँ छूट गई हैं। फिर भी इस

प्रकार की गलतियाँ कम हैं। भाषा एवं व्याकरण की अन्य त्रुटियाँ नहीं दिखाई पड़ती।

इस अनुवाद की मुख्य विशेषता है भाषा का अविकल प्रवाह जिससे पाठक थकता नहीं और उसकी उत्सुकता निरंतर बनी रहती है। छोटे-छोटे वाक्यों की आकर्षक शैली ने भी अनुवाद को रुचिकर बना दिया है।

कई विश्वविद्यालयों के पाठ्य-ग्रंथों में मूल रचना का समावेश है। हिन्दी अनुवाद के पश्चात् इसे अन्य विश्वविद्यालयों के पाठ्य-ग्रंथों में भी स्थान मिलना चाहिए जिससे उच्चकोटि के इतिहास के अध्ययन का प्रसार हिन्दी-भाषियों में बढ़े तथा हिन्दी में मौलिक रचनाओं के लेखकों को प्रोत्साहन मिले।

D. K.

शिक्षण मापन का इतिहास—सिद्धान्त तथा प्रयोग; लेखक—डा० एस० रावत; प्रकाशक—गया प्रसाद एण्ड संस, आगरा; मूल्य 6.00 रु०

शिक्षण मापन (Educational Measurement) आज की शिक्षा-व्यवस्था का एक महत्वपूर्ण अंग है। आधुनिक शिक्षा और शिक्षण-समस्या पर कोई भी खोज मापन और परख पर निर्भर है। छात्रों का मानसिक विकास, रुचि, और योग्यतानुसार विषयों का पठन-पाठन ही आधुनिक शिक्षा-व्यवस्था की माप काठी है। शिक्षण मापन विधि अध्यापक को छात्रों और शिक्षा-व्यवस्था के बारे में वास्तविक स्थिति का ज्ञान कराती है और शिक्षा की समस्याओं का हल ज्ञात करने में सहायता मिलती है। यह विषय वस्तुतः पाश्चात्य देशों में भी अभी प्रयोगात्मक स्थिति में है। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में 'शिक्षा मापन' के इतिहास, सिद्धान्त और प्रयोग पर विस्तृत आलोचना की गई है। यद्यपि पाश्चात्य देशों में इस विषय पर प्रचुर साहित्य उपलब्ध है और इसका पठन-पाठन अंग्रेजी के माध्यम से ही होता रहा है पर हिन्दी भाषा में शायद यह पुस्तक इस विषय पर प्रथम पुस्तकों में है। पुस्तक ट्रेनिंग कालेज के छात्रों के लिए लिखी गई है इसीसे पाठ-क्रम में इस विषय से सम्बन्धित तथा छात्रों की सुविधा को देखते हुए पाठ-सूचि के अनुकूल परिच्छेदों में विभक्त

है। हिन्दी में इस विषय की पाठ्य-पुस्तकों का अभाव बहुत अंशों तक इस पुस्तक से दूर होगा।

अनुक्रमिका, अंग्रेजी के पर्याप्त शब्दों का सूची पत्र और सहायक पुस्तकों की सूची पुस्तक की उपयोगिता को बढ़ा देते हैं। टेक्निकल शब्दों के अनुवाद उपयुक्त ही बन पड़े हैं किन्तु अच्छा होता यदि अधिकृत पारिभाषिक शब्दावली के शब्द ही प्रयोग में लाए जाते।

हिन्दी भाषा की समृद्धि में योग देने के लिए लेखक धन्यवाद के पात्र हैं। छपाई स्वच्छ है, गेट-अप साधारण।

सत्यवती वर्मा

विज्ञान शिक्षण: लेखक—एम० एस० रावत एवं मुकुट बिहारी लाल; प्रकाशक; गया प्रसाद एण्ड संस, आगरा; मूल्य 3.25 रु०

शिक्षण विषयक साहित्य का हिन्दी में अत्यन्त अभाव है। इन शैक्षणिक विषयों का पठन-पाठन अब तक अंग्रेजी के माध्यम से ही होता रहा है। हिन्दी भाषा के माध्यम से वैज्ञानिक विषयों का अध्ययन निश्चय ही हिन्दी के चतुर्मुखी विकास का परिचायक है। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक का प्रकाशन उस दिशा में एक नया कदम है। 'विज्ञान शिक्षण' में लेखकों ने विज्ञान के पाठ्यक्रम सिद्धान्तों और विज्ञान शिक्षण के ऐतिहासिक विकास का परिचय संक्षेप में दिया है। विषय सामग्री यद्यपि अंग्रेजी भाषा के अधिकृत पुस्तकों से ली गई है फिर भी संकुलन और विश्लेषण में लेखकों ने पर्याप्त परिश्रम किया है। शिक्षण के क्षेत्र में नित-प्रति के परिवर्तनों के साथ समन्वय रखना अत्यन्त आवश्यक है, विशेषतः विज्ञान जैसे नित-परिवर्तनशील विषय में तो यह बहुत ही आवश्यक हो जाता है। इस दिशा में पुस्तक एक अच्छी प्रचेष्टा है। बुनियादी शिक्षा ही आधुनिक शिक्षा प्रणाली का प्रमुख आलोच्य विषय है और बेसिक शिक्षा को ही हमारी सरकार ने भी मान्यता दी है। इसीलिए बेसिक शिक्षा में विज्ञान का क्या स्थान होना चाहिए यह एक महत्वपूर्ण प्रश्न है। लेखकों ने इस विषय पर भी संक्षिप्त आलोचना की है। हमारे स्कूलों के पाठ्यक्रम में विज्ञान को अभी वह

स्थान प्राप्त नहीं हो पाया है जो विदेशों में है। फलतः, विज्ञान-शिक्षण अभी तक उसी रूढ़िगत स्थिति में है। विज्ञान की शिक्षा दूसरे विषयों की शिक्षा से कुछ आधारभूत भिन्नता रखती है। पुस्तक में विज्ञान शिक्षण के प्रयोगात्मक और सैद्धान्तिक विषयों पर आलोचना की गई है विशेषतः परीक्षा-प्रणाली के दोष-गुणों की आलोचना शिक्षकों के लिए उपयोगी सिद्ध होगी। पाठ-योजना और पाठ-सूत्रों के नमूने अध्यापकों और ट्रेनिंग कालेज के छात्रों के लिए उपयोगी होंगे।

हमारे देश में अच्छे विज्ञान शिक्षकों का नितान्त अभाव है। आशा है पुस्तक के द्वारा विज्ञान की समस्याओं को अध्यापक अच्छी तरह समझ सकेंगे। पुस्तक की छपाई और गेट-अप साधारण है।

पुष्पा सिंह

विज्ञान जगत : लेखक—विलियम एच० क्राउस; अनुवादक—देवेन्द्र कुमार, प्रकाशक—राजपाल एण्ड संस, दिल्ली; मूल्य 3 रुपये, 1959

विज्ञान की कोई भी अच्छी पुस्तक हमारे लिये नूतनता की द्योतक है। आये दिन हो रहे आविष्कारों के सहारे हम लोग कितने आगे बढ़ते जा रहे हैं। इसका अनुमान साधारण जीवन में नहीं होता, कारण यह कि हम इसके महत्व का अनुबोधन नहीं कर पाते। सिर्फ जब कोई विशिष्ट घटना जैसे स्पूटनिक, लूनिक आदि सूर्य या चन्द्र के चारों ओर चक्कर काटने लगते हैं तो हमारे नेत्र आश्चर्य से विस्फुरित हो जाते हैं। अन्यथा सभी साधारण, लोग जो वैज्ञानिक साहित्य से दूर रहते हैं अनिच्छाकृत अज्ञानता से ग्रसित रहते हैं।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक विलियम एच० क्राउस कृत Understanding Science का हिन्दी अनुवाद है। पाश्चात्य देशों में विज्ञान के विषय की जानकारी के लिए नयी पुस्तकें समय-समय पर प्रकाशित होती रहती हैं क्योंकि वहां के जन-साधारण वैज्ञानिक उन्नति की धारा के साथ सतत परिचय रखना चाहते हैं। इसीलिए वहां सुगम भाषा में विज्ञान की पुस्तकों का अभाव नहीं है। यह पुस्तक भी इसी प्रकार की वैज्ञानिक-साधारण-ज्ञान की पुस्तक है। लेखक ने पुस्तक में वैज्ञानिक सिद्धान्तों की साधारण-सरल व्याख्या करके दिखाया है कि किस प्रकार मनुष्य ने इन सिद्धान्तों को अपने दैनिक जीवन

के लिये उपयोगी बनाया है। हमारे रहन-सहन, चाल-चलन, और सोचने समझने की सारी प्रक्रियाओं में विज्ञान ने अपना स्थान बना लिया है। पुस्तक के प्रथम खण्ड में वैज्ञानिक सिद्धान्तों का विश्लेषण है और बाद के अध्यायों में सिद्धान्तों के उपयोगों को दर्शाया गया है। पुस्तक को आदि से अन्त तक पढ़ने के पश्चात् ऐसा लगता है मानो एक ही पुस्तक द्वारा हमने न जाने कितना ज्ञान प्राप्त कर लिया। हमारे प्रतिदिन के व्यवहार और देखने सुनने की चीजें जैसे टेलीफोन, रेडियो, सिनेमा, फोटोग्राफी आदि के आविष्कारों की कहानी पढ़ कर हम आश्चर्य चकित रह जाते हैं। पुस्तक ऐसे लोगों के लिए जिन्हें विज्ञान का सीमित ज्ञान है किन्तु वैज्ञानिक आविष्कारों और जानकारी के प्रति उत्सुक हैं, अत्यन्त उपयोगी है। पुस्तक बड़े-बूढ़े और बालकों के लिए समान रूप से उपयोगी है। विशेष रूप से प्रौढ़-नवशिक्षार्थियों और किशोर छात्रों के लिए पुस्तक ज्ञान का भण्डार है। पुस्तक की सुगम भाषा और कठिन से कठिन विषय के विश्लेषण की रीति सरल और आकर्षक है।

हिन्दी अनुवाद सुन्दर बन पड़ा है, अनुवाद में अति साधारण शब्दों का प्रयोग करके अनुवादक ने अच्छा ही किया, अन्यथा पुस्तक का उद्देश्य ही विफल हो जाता।

रोहिणी प्रकाश

प्रेमचन्द : सुभाषित और सुवितयाँ : सम्पादक—श्री शरण; प्रकाशक—नारायण दत्त सहगल एण्ड संस, दिल्ली; मूल्य 4.25 रु०; 1959

प्रेमचन्द साहित्य एक विशाल समुद्र के समान है, उपन्यास, कहानियाँ, नाटक, अनुवाद, जीवनियाँ और निबन्धों के इस विशाल समुद्र में हजारों मोतियाँ भरे हैं। प्रेमचन्द साहित्य की पृष्ठभूमि है देश के पिछड़े हुए गांव और शहरों का निष्पेक्षित पीड़ित और रूढ़िगत समाज। देश की सामाजिक स्थिति का सही प्रतिरूप उनके साहित्य में प्रतिबिम्बित है। इसके साथ ही उनकी प्रत्येक कृति किसी न किसी सामाजिक उद्देश्य को लेकर लिखी गई है। प्रत्येक कहानी कोई न कोई सन्देश अवश्य देती है। प्रत्येक का कोई न कोई नैतिक मूल्य अवश्य है। इसी कारण इन कहानी, उपन्यासों में जहां तहां सुवितयाँ

और सुभाषित बिखरे पड़े हैं। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक इन्हीं सूक्तियों, सुभाषितों, और उद्धृतियों का छोटा-सा संकलन है। लेखक ने प्रायः सम्पूर्ण प्रेमचन्द साहित्य से खोज खोज इन सूक्तियों और सुभाषितों को इकट्ठा किया है। इस कठिन परिश्रम के लिए सम्पादक धन्यवाद के अधिकारी हैं। लेखक ने इन सूक्तियों को प्रायः सवासो साम्भव्य विषयों के अन्तर्गत बांट दिया है। विषयों के चयन में पर्याप्त मतानेक्य हो सकता है, क्योंकि विषय का कोई सीमित क्षेत्र नहीं होता। वस्तुतः ऐसी पुस्तकों के लिए विषयों की स्थापना के समय दो बातों का ध्यान रखना चाहिए—प्रथमतः विषयों का उपयुक्त वर्गीकरण, द्वितीयतः सूक्तियों

और उद्धृतियों का सही संयोजन। इस दिशा में लेखक यदि और अधिक सावधानी से काम लेते तो पुस्तक की उपयोगिता और बढ़ जाती और अनावश्यक विषयों की भीड़ न बढ़ती और न ही अनावश्यक उद्धृतियाँ ही पुस्तक में स्थान पा सकतीं। कहीं-कहीं पर तो पूरे-पूरे पैरे ही आ गये हैं और कुछेक विषयों का संयोजन हास्यास्पद और अनावश्यक है जैसे खिलाड़ी, युवक-युवती, सुसराल, कर्क आदि।

कुछ कमियों के होते हुए भी पुस्तक एक सुन्दर प्रयास है और प्रेमचन्द साहित्य का नया रूप है।

H. S. S.

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IN THIS ISSUE

LIQUIDATION OF ILLITERACY, especially in a country like ours, is a long and painful process and our Social Education programmes are a means towards that end—although they are not limited to that end only. Even if we compel by 1966 our children of the age group 6 to 11 to go to school, the problem of adult illiteracy would still be there for us to tackle. We, have, therefore, to be clear about what is involved in Social Education, the methods and technique to be employed in making our adult population literate; where audio-visual aids come in; their production and final use. Some understanding of these is made possible by the contributors to this issue of our journal. Ranging widely over varied ground, they give us with ease and familiarity, a peep into the magnitude of the task and suggest ways of setting about it. In a forthright contribution, Sohan Singh makes a plea for a unified direction of effort, in the implementation of our Social Education programmes. Dewan Chand Sharma tells us how our Social Education programmes are at present organized and suggests that if we are to advance rapidly towards the goal of the Welfare State, our citizens should be caught young and taught the value of national reconstruction. Bimla Bhatnagar on "Social Education for Women", Harbans Singh on "Documentary in Social Education", S. Roy on "Place of Library in a Modern School", and R. H. Lesser on "School as a Member of the Community", all in their different ways go to the root of the matter. There is, besides, Andre Lestage's "The Use of Audio-Visual Aids in Education", adapted from an article in "Unesco Chronicle".

As one of the contributors has said, the soul of Social Education is in Adult Education. And Adult Education boils down, more or less, to education of the ordinary men and women in the mass. Here, we are up against the counterparts of the "common man" in England who was taken to see the historical figures displayed in a wax-

works. Nudged by his wife to "larn" something out of it all, he exclaimed "History is all well for Kings and such but what do we ever get out of it? Old Henry VI had eight wives; how many have I got?"

From which, it should be clear that the trappings and modes of formal instruction are just *not* his cup of tea. With this in mind, M. Mujeeb has given a clear outline of the manner in which reading materials should be prepared for our adult population. The ordinary man may not be interested in "grammre, nonsense and learning" but he is certainly interested in life and in matters concerning life. If, therefore, he is to be enlightened, the instruction should stem from the facts of life around him. Was it not Plato who said that "the noblest of all study is what a man should be and how he should live"? Looked at in this light, literature, history and the like become subjects of practical significance. Putting them across to the ordinary adult should follow a pattern all its own. As the writers in this issue have shown it, audio-visual aids come in very handy in Social Education ("seeing is believing"). But, how far would their efficacy actually deliver the goods would depend upon, in the final analysis, the degree of their subordination to the key-factor in any educational situation—the teacher. Given the necessary imagination and the grasp of the Social Education setting, it is the teacher who could imbue, no doubt with all these aids, the mass of the people with the imperatives which education in general seeks to impart. It would be ideal if economic resources were not so scanty, reading materials so limited and residential Adult Education as obtaining in Scandanavia non-existent. But one need not despair so long as there are organisers with a will to go ahead and teachers who could communicate the joy of knowledge. The way to Social Education would have, then, been paved and beams of light, however, dim and faint, would flash across the lives of men and, by degrees, usher in the break of dawn in their benighted world.

—EDITOR

ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

SOCIAL EDUCATION IN INDIA has a colossal task to perform. For that an organisation has been set up in the country. We have to see whether the organisation is adequate for the task or not.

The adequacy of an organisation is measurable only against the task it has to do. A good indication of it is the job chart of the basic worker in the field, who in our field is the Social Education Organiser. In the "Syllabus for the Job-Training of Social Education Organisers (Men)" the job chart for Social Education Organisers comprises community organisation, literacy work, education in citizenship, organisation of libraries, radio groups, and recreational and cultural activities. In order to comprehend the size of the task, we may pick out of these only two items for quantification, viz. literacy and community organisation. The responsibility of Social Education is only for adult literacy, where nearly 25 crores of adults have to be made literate. In so far as community organisation is concerned, the idea is to have one youth organisation and one women's organisation in each village, that is to say, nearly 11 lakhs organisations in the rural areas alone.

What are the resources available to the Social Education organisation to do this work? Confining ourselves to the statistics of community development blocks, we had in 1959 about 40,000 literacy teachers, 3,918 Social Education organisers, of whom 1,441 were women and about two crores of rupees for Social Education work in these areas. It does not need any elaborate argument to show that there is little commensurability between the task and the resources.

Before examining the Social Education organisation in some detail, it should be mentioned here that, except, for a few cities, organised Social Education work is

confined only to rural areas, i.e. to about 75% of our population—that too in theory because the community development organisation in which the Social Education structure is embedded does not as yet reach the entire rural areas in the country. The best example of organised Social Education work is in the city of Bombay and that is about all. There is no doubt that a part of literacy work is being done in the cities, but that is because there is a greater felt need for literacy in the cities and not because there is an organisation to meet the felt need. In our present study, therefore, we will almost forget the cities.

The Social Education organisation functions at five levels—the village (or panchayat), the Block, the district, the State and the all-India levels. We shall examine it at each of these levels.

The Village Level

The community development organisation of which the social education organisation is an integral part, covered in 1959 (September) a population of 18 crores in 3.6 lakhs villages. The most important forms of social education organisation at the lowest, the field, level are literacy classes, community centres, libraries and youth and women's associations. Between them, the 3.6 lakhs villages had about 29,000 literacy classes, 1,09,000 community centres, 63,200 libraries, 1,26,500 youth clubs with 14,71,000 members and 30,400 women's *samitis* with 4,95,000 members.

It will thus be seen that there is a vast distance between the requirements and actualities of social education set-up in the villages. The distance expands in magnitude as we examine the working of each of the four types of organisations we have selected.

Take for example, the literacy classes. According to the Sixth Evaluation Report the contribution to literacy made by the adult literacy centres would be 3% of the total population in the blocks (page 83). Of these, only 57% received any lasting

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benefit (p. 86). The figure, it should be remembered, is a little too generous to bear the test of evidence. For, literacy is a skill which can be kept alive only by constant exercise. And as the Report itself says "about 10% of the respondents in the blocks reported using the library and an equal percentage reported that they had been reading newspapers during the last six months" (p. 85-86). So that the lasting benefit from literacy classes is actually derived only by 0.3% of the population of the blocks. And if we remember that the literacy effort in the blocks is greater than that in the non-block areas and that the population is growing at a disconcerting rate, we should hardly be surprised if we learn that the size of the illiterate population in India is swelling like a bacterial culture in a favourable medium.

We will now take community centres. Apart from the fact that not even a third of the villages covered by the development blocks have community centres, the activities in these centres are none too exciting. Concerning these centres, the Sixth Evaluation Report says as follows: "The average attendance is poor in all programmes including those like the cultural and the radio programmes at which everybody can participate. The libraries and the reading rooms can obviously attract only the literate sections of the village population. But the attendance at these institutions considered in relation to the literate persons only in the village is also very small. The same is true of group discussion and meetings." (p. 89).

We need not be surprised at an even more depressing story of libraries. It is, however, worth dwelling a little while on the youth and women's associations, because of the importance which Social Education attaches to organisations of the people. Anyone who has seen the working of these organisations will bear out that there is very little of educational content in their activities. And after all, as the statistics show, they hardly meet three to five times a year on an average.

The working of the Social Education organisation at the village level would

mainly depend on the available workers at that level, their training and the guidance available for them. The primary school teacher is mostly responsible for running the literacy classes. Honourable exceptions apart, it is notorious that the primary school teacher seldom puts his best in this work. For one thing, he has little training for the work, he has even less guidance, and least of all has he any but the meagrest interest in the work. For, whatever we may say on the importance of the trinity of the school, the co-operative and the *panchayat* in the community development work, the school teacher has stood apart from its main current.

The libraries at the village level are also supposed to be the responsibility of the village. And that is the reason why no more need be said of them here.

The community centres and the associations of youth and women derive their personnel from the villages interested in their programmes. On the basis of available studies, it is clear that the circle is confined to high caste people who may be wholly or partially literate. There is perhaps some sort of intermittent guidance available to them from the Social Education Organiser. There are no training facilities for them. Though the Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation organises thousands of training camps for "Gram Sahayaks"—11 lakhs of "Gram Sahayaks" were trained in 21,000 of these camps in 1958-59—social education work is not the favoured subject in these camps.

The Block Level

We now come to the second, the Block level organisation. The pivot of this organisation is the pair of Social Education Organisers in a block. In the 2,708 blocks out of nearly 3,000 which reported in early 1959, there were 3,918 Social Education Organisers, including 1,441 lady S.E.Os. We have already mentioned the main features of the job chart of a Social Education Organiser.

The work of a Social Education Organiser will depend on his educational calibre, his training, the set-up in which he works

and the clarity of his role in it, his load of work and the material means available to him to carry on his work.

With regard to his educational standards, it is expected that he will be a graduate. However, this qualification is not always respected. Especially in the case of women, no effort is made to stick to this qualification which has so often by so many deliberative bodies been named as essential qualification. It will easily be seen that less than

a graduate will hardly be able to do justice to his job chart.

A Social Education Organiser, after his appointment, is brought, firstly, for a short course in an orientation Training Centre and later to one of the 13 Social Education Organisers' Training Centres for a training period of five months. The training comprises lectures in the practical work at the centre and concurrent field work. The theoretical work is divided into 10 groups as follows:-

No. 1	Rural Communities and their characteristics—The Indian Rural community	40 hours
No. 2	Dynamics of Human Behaviour	40 hours
No. 3	Method of Working with people	40 hours
No. 4	The <i>Panchayat</i> , the School and the cooperative as basic institutions of the community and the role of the voluntary organisations	20 hours
No. 5	Leadership Training	25 hours
No. 6	Youth Welfare	25 hours
No. 7	Social Education—The New Concept	100 hours
No. 8	Methods and materials of Social Education.. .. .	
No. 9	Programme of Social Education	
No. 10	Administration of Social Education Programme	20 hours
TOTAL		310 hours

The lady S.E.O.'s syllabus is slanted in the direction of work with women and children.

After the training, the S.E.O. comes back to his block, where he works as a member of a team of about 10 specialists, with the Block Development Officer as the head of the team. The S.E.O. has, therefore, to work out team programmes as well as his own programmes. An essential condition of the success of the S.E.O.'s work is the understanding which the Block Development Officer has of his work. The Block Development Officer is almost invariably derived from a department other than education and therefore his understanding of the educational role of the S.E.O. is submerged in his anxiety to put him to work where he will be of "real" use—"real use" being measured according to his own foot-rule. Recently, as we shall

see, the whole work of the S.E.O. has been confused, assailed, reviled and vitiated by the unfortunate controversy at the upper levels regarding his role. Today he is the problem man in the block development team.

The sixth Evaluation Report has the following to say on the load of S.E.O.'s work: "According to scheme, two S.E.O.s are expected to look after a whole block, with an average of 299 square miles, and containing 115 villages and 77 thousand persons. This, of course, is a requirement which it is humanly impossible to fulfil" (p. 77). Some other handicaps in his work mentioned by the Report are the unequal division of work between the man and the woman S.E.O. and his too frequent transfers.

Of the approximately 3,000 blocks, as in early 1959, nearly 2,000 were Stage I

blocks and about a thousand Stage II blocks. The five-yearly provision for social education in the two stages are Rs. 70,000 and Rs. 50,000 respectively. Out of this, some amount has been reserved for women's and children's programmes and the rest is divided between literacy, libraries, youth clubs, etc. A conspicuous hiatus in this allocation is a provision for training teachers for literacy work and youth and other leaders for various social education activities at the village level.

The Social Education Organisers are not too well served with literature and teaching aids. As we shall see, publication of literature—for workers in the field of social education as well as literature for neo-literates—is a weak part of the State Governments' social education programmes. As a result, the S.E.O. in his turn cannot properly feed the villages in his locality with the wall news sheets and easy-to-read literature, recognised as essential to a process of adult education.

At the block level, there is also a Block Development Committee or *Panchayat Samiti* as an advisory body. Each such Committee will have a sub-committee for Social Education.

The position of the S.E.O. in the development team is such that unless he has firm links with the Education Department he is likely to be swamped by overwhelming non-educational demands on his time and talent. Unfortunately, even so obvious a requirement has now become a subject of dispute and today we find him being fitted in various patterns of administration with his links, may be, to a *Panchayat* Department or a Social Welfare Department or a Development Department.

However, the accepted pattern, or let us say, the pattern recommended by the Ministry of Education and endorsed and backed by the Development Commissioners' Conference is that the S.E.O. should have his home in the Education Department through the District Social Education Officer.

And that is the third level of the social education organisation.

The District Level

The District Social Education Officer, in consultation with the Block Development Officers, is responsible for drawing up the annual programme of work of the S.E.O.s in his district and of guiding the S.E.O.s in the technical aspects of their work. To help him to perform his duties competently, the National Fundamental Education Centre has instituted a five-months course for the District Social Education Officer.

It was intended at the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan that by the end of it all the 320 and odd districts in India will have their District Social Education Officers. However, so far only 99 D.S.E.O.s have been appointed, some of whom have been trained at the National Fundamental Education Centre.

As in the case of S.E.O.s so also the D.S.E.O.s are not well served with literature and teaching aids. For example, every D.S.E.O. should have a mobile cine-van to help the S.E.O.s in their work by reinforcing it with the necessary visual aids, which would be prepared by local artists.

Another very important organisation at the District level of significance to social education work is the district libraries. At present, nearly 131 districts in India have their district libraries. The working of these libraries, of course, leaves much (if not everything) to be desired. A district library, it may be mentioned, is expected to extend its services through the block libraries, to the village or the *panchayat* level.

The District Development Committees (or the *Zilla Parishads*) will bring the non-official view in the work of the District Development Officers, including the D.S.E.O. and the District Librarian. Their development, however, is yet in an embryonic stage, at least so far as social education work is concerned.

State Level—the Weakest Link

The most important level and withal the weakest link in the chain of social education organisation in the country is the fourth,

the State, level. Ideally, its functions should be :

- (a) to provide the strongest unit of administration and advisory personnel of social education in the State.
- (b) to provide an adequate library service in the State.
- (c) to have an adequate programme of training different types of social education workers in the State, and
- (d) to provide supporting services such as literature and audio-visual aids.

As against this, the State Governments with one or two exceptions have not so far been able to discharge effectively their responsibilities in the entire field of social education. No doubt almost every State has an officer in charge of social education work in the State. But his chains have been

his birthright, as it were. In the first place, more often than not, he is burdened by other work. But most of all, he is not provided with the finance and facilities for his work. He is not assisted by any specialists, he is not assisted by agencies for the production of literature and audio-visual aids for workers and beneficiaries of Social education, he is not required to organise any training programmes.

The library set-up in all but a few States leaves a lot to be desired. Though almost every State Government has a State Central Library, its functional value has not made itself sufficiently felt. The same applies to the skeleton public libraries in the many States that have them.

This state of affairs may be attributed to lack of finance. Heaven knows how scanty are the funds, but it is worthwhile to glance at the table that follows giving an idea of how the available and allotted finance, scanty as it is, has been utilised:

	Plan Provision	Expenditure during 1956-59	Proposed Expenditure for 1959-61	Total
(in lakhs of rupees)				
Development of Libraries	243.68	97.65	100.79	198.44
Appointment of D.S.E.Os.	39.96	10.78	16.84	27.62
Production of Literature	25.46	3.57	4.29	7.86
Miscellaneous	99.72	13.00	17.97	30.97
TOTAL ..	408.82	125.00	139.89	264.89

The figures speak for themselves. On the basis of these figures and the pace of activity they suggest, it would not be far wrong to anticipate that out of the total provision of Rs. 4 crores in the Second Five-Year Plan, the State Government will have hardly utilized Rs. 2.1 crores. It is to be noted in this connection that no State has any active advisory body on social education.

The National Level

We now come to the fifth, the all-India, level of social education organisation. Its most distinguishing mark is its dyarchial

structure, for the responsibility of social education work is divided between two Ministries at the Centre—the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Community Development & Co-operation. The latter Ministry is directly responsible for

- (a) Social education work in the community development blocks, and
- (b) the administration of Social Education Organisers' Training Centres.

It is advised in this work by the annual conferences of Development Commissioners

and the annual conferences of Directors of Social Education Organisers' Training Centres.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for the rest of the Central activities in the field. Specifically, it is responsible for

- (a) pilot projects in the field of social education and libraries;
- (b) training the higher level personnel of social education and libraries,
- (c) research,
- (d) co-ordination of State Governments, social education programmes.
- (e) production of literature for workers and the new reading public.
- (f) training of personnel and production of aids in the fields of audio-visual education.

The Ministry of Education is advised in its social education work mainly by the Central Advisory Board of Education and *ad hoc* committees it may set up for any specific purpose within the field, e.g., the committee set up to frame a model library legislation for guidance to State Governments.

There is no doubt that a large part of the work of the Ministry of Information & Broadcasting also is of vital social educational import, e.g. the radio broadcasts, production of documentaries and newsreels, distribution of community radio sets and production of literature. However, it is still valid to speak of a dyarchy rather than a triarchy, because the work of the Ministry of Information & Broadcasting does not affect Social education work in the field whereas the division of work between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Community Development & Cooperation does affect it vitally.

The two Ministries attempt to co-ordinate their Social education work by means of a joint committee. Very recently, the committee has been split up into two levels—Ministers' level and Officers' level. The functioning of the new two-tier arrangement has yet to be tested. The single joint committee device, however, broke down under the

strain of differences between the two Ministries on the question of administration of Social education at the Centre and the allied question of the control of S.E.O.T. Centres. After a few attempts to clear the differences, the Ministry of Community Development & Cooperation shifted to a stand which imported a drastic recasting of the role of an S.E.O.

The net result of this was, the Ministry of Community Development & Cooperation were to keep S.E.Os. for their work, which is the organisation of community—i.e. village groups, such as youth and women's organisations, and the Ministry of Education were to manage their part of the work, namely, adult education. This bifurcation was far from wholesome and the differences that arose between the two Ministries as a consequence were not in the interest of the campaign for widespread Social Education. At one time efforts were made to resolve the differences by the Planning Commission and there was even the hint of a solution. But as it turned out, unfortunately, it proved to be a false dawn. The repercussions that followed on the Social Education structure in the country were, as can easily be imagined, very unfortunate. The position of the S.E.O.s in the Development Team became confused, undefined and invidious.

It is vital to the health of Social Education organisation in India that the differences within the top level of the organisation should be cleared. The differences can only be cleared by recognising that the soul of social education is adult education. There is no doubt that community organisation is a vital part of the concept of social education, but community organisation enters in the concept as a potent educational technique. In this connection, we cannot do better than quote from the "Report of a Community Development Evaluation Mission in India". Apropos the subject of the functions of S.E.O., the Mission says:

"To regard them (the S.E.O.s) primarily as 'organisers' is not using them to their full capacity and is also a difficult and potentially dangerous function to assign to anyone of their standing and education. To begin with, it is a waste of time and

personnel to 'organise village groups' without a very clear idea of what the groups are for; what activities they are likely, or are intended, to take up; and how such new groups coalesce with, differ from, or present challenges to, existing groups in the villages. Furthermore, the social education organizers have responsibility for, approximately, 100 villages in a block and cannot make extended stays in any one particular village to organise groups there.

"A skilled appraisal of the need for new groups in villages to carry out new developmental or social activities is far beyond the capacity of the majority of social education organisers. Their ineffective efforts at group activities are frustrating to themselves and do not earn the esteem and confidence of other block officials." (p. 55-56)

Stating the assumption behind the recommendation, the Mission conclude "that the real job of the social education organizer is adult education, using that concept in a wide and comprehensive sense. To this end—and everyone would agree that the proportion of adult education is vital to

a new concept of people's participation—the differences of opinion at the State and Central levels about which department of the Government is responsible for adult education should be finally resolved, and the social education organizer should be charged with specific responsibilities in adult education in rural areas. The other technical officers on the block staff are also responsible for adult education in their own fields of agriculture, co-operation, rural industries, etc. but there is still an important and relatively untouched field for the social education organizer to work in." (p. 56).

Once the confusion at the centre is cleared and co-ordination takes the place of division of responsibilities tending to create exclusivism, it will be easy to clear the confusion at the State level. When that happens a new wave of life will spread in the organism of social education in the country. Then, even with its handicaps arising out of the soft-peddling of the needs of adult education by planning authorities, it will achieve much more in the span of *one* plan than it has been able to do in *two*.

Readers may please note that the issues of THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY are now dated according to the seasons of the year instead of the months.

SOCIAL EDUCATION FOR NATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

WHAT DOES NATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION MEAN in our country today? How can social education promote it? What kind of social education should we have in order that the goal of national reconstruction can be achieved speedily? How can we devise methods of social education which can bring about the desired results? All these intriguing questions have to be answered clearly before we consider the proposition suggested by the title of this article.

First of all, we should try to understand what National Reconstruction in Free India means, the blueprints of which are given in our Five-Year Plans. Our country has already seen the completion of the First Five-Year Plan. The Second Five-Year Plan will be completed in 1961, after which our country will embark on the Third Five-Year Plan. This will not, however, be the end of it. We will require at least two more plans to get our country out of the state of being under-developed. This means that we will require five Five-Year Plans in order to remove the stigma of being under-developed from our country. It is a gigantic task as everybody knows, and for this we have to make the utmost use of our own resources in man and money. Our efforts are directed only towards one end and that is the building up of the Welfare State that will be an insurance against poverty, ignorance, disease and backwardness. It will not, however, be something unique in the world. There are several other countries of the world, big as well as small, which have this kind of State as the goal of their national endeavour. Some of these countries have travelled a long way along this road. There are others which are very near the goal. Our country is, however, one of those countries which are struggling valiantly for the achievement of this goal. It is, heartening to note that after our two Five-Year Plans the goal does not seem to be very difficult to achieve.

Democratic Methods

India, which is the biggest democracy in the world, has employed democratic methods to achieve the goal of self-sufficiency in

food, maximise its industrial production, liquidate illiteracy, to eradicate disease, and make available to every citizen of India the basic necessities of life, such as food, clothing, shelter, education, adequate standard of living and freedom from disease. Now living in a democracy, very few of us understand what the implications of democratic methods are. The very first thing that strikes us when we contemplate this issue is that all these objectives are to be fulfilled with the willing consent of the people. In other words, the four hundred millions of Indians have to be imbued with the spirit which underlies these plans and the determination to fulfil these plans.

In some of the States of India we have over-hauled our democratic machinery in order to make it more in tune with our needs for development. Beginning with the *Village Panchayats* we have come up to the *Zila Parishads* and have endeavoured to make each one of them responsible for executing some of our projects for development. We have also established Development Committees at the District level in which we have the officers of the District working along with the representatives of the people, thus making our citizens aware of the need for development in a democratic manner.

In a way, our Community Development programme is intended to make the people of India development-conscious. Under this programme we have covered thousands of villages and made their inhabitants plan-conscious. We also hope that by the end of the Third Five-Year Plan there will be no village in India which will not be covered by the Community Development Blocks. Similarly, we have our Social Welfare Board which caters primarily to the needs of women and children.

These agencies are educative in an indirect way. What India needs today is direct education. In other words, we require a frontal attack on the problems of development and this can be done only through education. It is true that we contemplate

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universal free primary education in the Third Five-Year Plan. According to this scheme all the children of school-going age between 6 and 11 will go to school, thereby reducing the incidence of illiteracy in our country. If, in addition to this, we think of the net-work of secondary schools, vocational schools, technical schools, agricultural schools, institutes of technology, agricultural Universities, medical colleges, dental colleges, veterinary colleges, Universities in general and other institutions that impart various kinds of education in our country, the picture does not remain as bleak as before. The establishment of these institutions and the pace at which we are proceeding show that India is trying to become an educational state. But, in spite of all our efforts, there is much ground yet to be covered. Let us first of all take the problem of illiteracy. The picture that we see in this connection is appalling. The following figures taken from the census of 1951 show the magnitude of the problem of illiteracy in India:—

(i) Percentage of literates in 1951 (the latest census year).	16.6%
(ii) Percentage of literacy if children below 10 are excluded.	20 %
(iii) Literacy among men	24.9%
(iv) Literacy among women.	7.9%
(v) Literacy in urban areas.	34.6%
(vi) Literacy in rural areas.	12.1%

Filling the Gap

This gap between literacy and illiteracy is not merely an educational problem, but a political problem and an economic problem and above all a social problem. It is because democracy and illiteracy go ill together. If we want to have a first-rate democracy in India, we cannot build it up merely with the help of illiterate persons, even though they may have native intelligence, political shrewdness and appreciation of cultural values in advance of even those who are called literates.

The problem is : how is this gap to be filled? The only answer is that social education can redress the wrongs inherent in illiteracy. But eradication of illiteracy is not the only function of social education, though it is one of its very important functions. Social education is a comprehensive scheme devised to promote political, social, economic and national awareness in the masses of India. It is something which brings together the members of the various social groups and promotes a feeling of social solidarity. It is also something which brings home to the minds of the people the objectives of Five-Year Plans and energises them to contribute their share to the completion of this national venture. Again, it is something which makes available to the people the results of scientific and social research. It tells them how to adopt new methods of agriculture and animal husbandry. It also aims at the civic education of the people so that they can be better citizens of India. Above all, it is something which is evolving a new type of leader—a leader of the constructive type who can get the people out of the ruts of traditional thinking and customary practices. This new leader, without boasting about it, can tell them how the socialist pattern of society can be a boon for them and how they can attain progress through cooperation of all kinds. Social education, in this way, levels down social barriers and is a guarantee against mental stagnation and mental isolation which have been the bane of our society all these years.

Working of the Scheme

The question is how the scheme of Social education works at present. First of all, our Community Projects establish literacy classes and though the enrolment in these is not something about which we can congratulate ourselves, still they are good as far as they go for waging the relentless fight against illiteracy. Some of these Community Projects have Community Centres. These centres are meeting places for the people where they can have their cultural and recreational activities. To some of these centres are attached information rooms where information useful to the Community is made available in the regional language. Facilities for indoor games are provided at these centres and sometimes

discussion groups are held where people can discuss their problems. Debates and Seminars, are also held at these centres and they provide opportunities for people to have their say on important matters. These centres also have libraries of their own, where books for neo-literates are stocked. Generally speaking, schools are utilised for this purpose but there are such centres in the army also. One of the great benefits accruing to the public from these centres is that at some of these they can learn handicrafts and practise their hobbies. These centres work for persons of all age groups. All are welcome there, old as well as young people, grown-ups as well as teen-agers.

It is, however, to be remembered that if India has to advance rapidly towards the goal of the Welfare State, the citizens should be caught young. So, particular emphasis is laid on the formation of youth groups. These youth groups are called by different names, according to the functions they perform. There are groups meant exclusively for farmers so that our agriculture gets out of the old rut. There are groups whose function is to serve as a protective force. They work as guardians of civic morality and try to put down anti-social activities. Then there are groups exclusively for women. These groups bring together the women of the community who learn how to improve their homes and look after their children. The women at these groups are also taught how to introduce smokeless *chuhlas* in their homes. They are also taught knitting, tailoring and other kinds of craft work. They are told about maternity welfare and what constitutes a balanced diet. They are taught how to decorate their homes and how to keep kitchen gardens. In this way social education centres cater for the needs of the people at large. Another thing that has been made possible is the institution of libraries. These libraries function not only at the District level, but also at the *Panchayat* level. It is these which encourage the reading habit amongst the people. On a visit to some of these libraries one can see how keen people are for reading books not only for entertainment, but also for making them better farmers and better householders.

It is not, however, by means of books, lectures and lessons that social education spreads. The radio is made use of for this purpose. Demonstrations are also held and excursions are sometimes undertaken to places where new projects are taking shape. In this way, the class room, the radio, visual aids, exhibitions, films, magic lanterns, books and filmstrips are made use of for this purpose. But to say this does not imply that all this work is sponsored by the Government. It is true that the Government plays a major part in the spread of social education, but voluntary organisations and semi-government organisations also perform their share of the work. It is, however, not very heartening to note that the number of these organisations is very limited and that they function only in a few States of India. The problem, therefore, is to make more and more voluntary organisations in all parts of India take part in the scheme of social education.

It is true that all this work is being done by voluntary workers in towns and villages, by primary school teachers, by village level workers and by Social Education Organisations, but it is done mostly in an amateurish fashion. Even though every effort is made to train these workers through Janta Colleges and other agencies, the facilities for training are not adequate. Even then social education organisers and the village level workers are the two key-stones of social education. It is they who establish literacy schools; it is they who build up libraries in villages and set up circulating libraries; it is they who look to the cultural and educational needs of the people. They organise exhibitions and hold fairs. They try to have play-grounds in villages and make arrangements for welfare activities of every kind. They make people aware of child welfare and arrange for the training of local leaders. Whatever the results may be, it cannot be denied that the road along which they are travelling is in the right direction.

Much Remains to be Done

The task which confronts the social educational workers is gigantic and whatever we have done so far hardly touches the fringe of the problem. In fact, after taking into account all the progress that we

have made in the field so far, we are armed only with a toy gun, while we are out to kill an elephant. The difficulties in the field are patent to every observer. In the first place the workers in the field do not always act with the missionary zeal which the task calls for. So, they go on performing the routine duties in a conventional way without coming to actual grips with the problem. They forget that the adult is not a learner in the same sense in which a child is and that social education is not the same thing as schooling imparted in our schools and Universities. They are not conscious, therefore, that to them is assigned a nation-building task of the highest importance and that they are to do it in a spirit of self-dedication and not look at it from a mercenary angle. At the same time, the resources at the disposal of our country are limited, and therefore, the problem seems to be insoluble. Again, voluntary agencies have not taken to this work with as much eagerness as they have taken to other kinds of social work. Social education, therefore, works under all kinds of handicaps: lack of money, lack of enthusiasm, lack of trained workers and the general apathy of the adult towards anything which is not familiar or customary. But no one will deny that if we want to build democracy at its grass-roots and if we want to hasten

the pace of national re-construction, social education can act as a panacea. Social education can be handy if we want to tell people what their rights and duties are as citizens and if we want to instil in them the spirit of service to the nation. It is through social education that people can begin to love democracy and know how it works. It is by means of this education that we can educate people in the problems that confront us and the world at large. This education can fill our citizens with a sense of pride in our cultural heritage and can teach them the laws of health and cleanliness. They can be told the advantages of cooperation and they can be given training in crafts. Social education can tell us what recreation is and what these moral values are for which our nation is well known. In other words, while our children go to school, our boys and girls go to colleges and Universities. The people of India should pass through the portals of social education centres. In this matter the experience of other countries like the Soviet Union and Denmark can be a useful guide to us. Doing comes after learning and it is only after the people have learnt the value of national reconstruction through social education that they will lend their hand to it.

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The use of AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS IN EDUCATION*

BY AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS, we usually mean the most modern or the most recently used of these methods (films, filmstrips, radio and television). This is a summary identification of very old methods with very modern instruments, and one should react against it. Visual aids are far older. They correspond to a profound tendency among the immense majority of men: to materialize their thoughts in the form of graphic or sonorous images or to give their thoughts a concrete frame of reference. Plato himself took care to set the scenery of his dialogues and he used concrete words and concrete comparisons (for example, the cave) as foundations for his most abstract ideas. In France, the *Tres riches heures du duc de Berry* bring out the importance which 'illustration' can take in a work which would have otherwise sunk into oblivion. Xylographic images preceded the printing press by three-quarters of a century and the first illustrated book by nearly a century. The tremendous success of the 'images of Epinal' in books peddled from door to door in France was only a manifestation of popular taste in a society where illiterates continued to be in a majority and where images went with oral literature. Films, radio and television, considered as educational instruments, have merely developed—at a rapid rate—alongside older means whose importance remains considerable. Their common denominator lies in their function as aids.

This is not a theoretical conclusion, for it is confirmed by the very attitude of the educator. The educator basically must contribute to the training of the individual (in his character and conduct) with a view to his integration into a given society and teach new ideas, facts and techniques to a specific public. It is thus relatively easy to define the goals at which the educator

aims. Achieving these goals is another task which brings him face to face every day with the basic problem of pedagogy—that of transmitting or communicating ideas or information. To solve this problem, the educator resorts to infinitely varied means, among them audio-visual aids. If our purpose, therefore, is to aid the educator, we must then offer him as complete an arsenal as possible of these means. But it is the educator and the educator alone who chooses the means which is best adapted to his subject, his audience and his circumstances. It is thus clear that audio-visual aids cannot be separated from educational materials in general.

This tendency toward the use of concrete examples has developed through a complex process. At first, graphic representation was probably only a way to enable man to capture fleeting thoughts and the sole way of transmitting thoughts, compared to oral transmission which was subject to rapid distortion. The invention of writing, a perfect example of a visual aid at its origin, proceeded from the same necessity. It would be interesting to study, for example, in the light of Mayan writing—of the Codex Troano—how man progressed from the talking image to the letter. We can therefore conclude that 'illustrations' were looked upon at first, at least by the most educated persons, as a minor complement to thought. The entire history of publishing until the end of the eighteenth century confirms this. But, in the twentieth century, powerful means of reproduction, associated with radio, cinema and television, have changed the aspect of the problem. Sound and visual 'illustrations' are no longer mere minor complements to thought but they directly influence the thoughts and the very conduct of millions of individuals. It was therefore inevitable that a desire should spring up to master such a powerful instrument, to discipline it for better (education) or for worse (advertising, for example). But this coveted mastery is still rather crude: it is often reduced to the creating of a few conditioned reflexes, satisfying the merchant

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* This article was written in connexion with the Regional Seminar on the Use of Audio-Visual Aids in Adult and School Education in Latin America organized by Unesco at Mexico City from 28 September to 17 October 1959 and is adapted from the November 1959 issue of the "Unesco Chronicle".

but not the educator. Certain of these audio-visual aids (posters, films, radio and television) are both means of education and media for information and propaganda, and it is not always easy to draw the line between what belongs to the educator and what is within the province of information or propaganda. It is also probable that the child is more affected by the violence (colours and slogans) of steel posters and by the shock techniques of radio and television (especially when commercialized) at home than by the visual aids used in school. Should we conclude then that these means are harmful and should we condemn them? This negative attitude would be most unrealistic. The only possible conclusion is to accept the need for basic research in these fields. It should bear essentially upon psychology (applied to education and its relations with filmology, for example) and upon the social sciences (evaluation of effects, changes of attitude, etc.). We educators have already ventured forth, but timidly, onto this terrain. Systematic establishment of contacts with research workers and specialized institutes is the duty of all those who are responsible at the national level for audio-visual services.

It can be reasonably hoped that this basic research will lead to a better use of audio-visual aids and to more scientific pedagogy based upon them. It is not difficult to observe that their use is continuing and developing outside the pale of any research. As a result, a pragmatic pedagogy is taking shape and not necessarily in contradiction to the results of the most scholarly research. Establishing or stimulating closer collaboration between research workers and educators, stimulating the writing of theses or documents containing the fruits of the work of both, and publishing and distributing the results of this work should also be the common task of pedagogical and audio-visual services.

We have seen that audio-visual aids cannot be separated from educational materials as a whole, this conclusion being thrust upon us by the attitude of the user when confronted by these materials. Now this same user—whether a teacher, a professor or an adult educator—does not act any differently

when pedagogy and techniques are involved. He can never be purely a pedagogue or purely a technician. It is clear, therefore, that the pedagogy of audio-visual aids cannot be separated arbitrarily from audio-visual techniques. No one can hope to achieve good results unless he is a sensitive pedagogue and a skilled technician. The problem must be solved globally.

Unfortunately, this initiation into techniques is not always carried out in the institutions where future educators are trained. In under-developed countries, the lack of qualified personnel (and equipment) is the most frequent obstacle to such an initiation. But it is not the only one because similar shortcomings are often found in more favoured countries. Routine, lack of initiative and administrative delays are the main factors responsible for educational sluggishness. There is no doubt that audio-visual aids produce their best results when they are used in connexion with active teaching methods. Here, the task of educators is to draw the attention of their governments to these methods and to the recommendations of previous seminars concerned with the introduction of an initiation into film and radio techniques into normal schools and similar institutions. I am thinking, for example, of the recommendations of the seminars at Messina (1953) and New Delhi (1958) organized by Unesco.

Finally, there are other questions which should be taken up in thorough and specific studies. They are related to the use of radio and television in the teaching of reading and writing and of languages. A great deal has been said about the 'singular, specific and irreplaceable services which can be rendered, for example, by 'teaching by radio'. A great many hopes were stirred as a result of statements repeated with such warm conviction that one could have believed them to be dictated by experience. First of all, we should note the ambiguity of the term 'teaching'. In the context of the statements to which we refer, this term covers both the teaching of subjects such as science and history as well as the teaching of reading and writing. One of the greatest problems which remains to be solved is the liquidation of illiteracy.

Following hasty conclusions, a belief has grown that, thanks to radio, illiteracy can be liquidated quickly, easily and cheaply. But what do we know about it objectively? Until now, the number of experiments has been limited. Some of them were frankly admitted failures. Fortunately, we will soon be in possession of an exhaustive report of the results obtained during the best known of these experiments, the one at Sutatenza (Colombia). One of our experts has made a global study of these results from which we think that we will be able to derive valuable lessons, if not definitive conclusions.

A few complementary remarks should be made here. The first concerns the basic difference between teaching notions of history, geography, science, etc. by radio and the teaching of reading and writing. We say teaching by radio because the problem of teaching reading and writing by television is infinitely simpler and the results already acquired are sufficiently convincing. At any rate, it can never be said too often that the global use of audio-visual aids always gives the best results. Opposing radio to television or both to films is a typical example of a false problem. In an educational campaign organized and carried out at a national level, all complementary means must be used if possible. It is also virtually certain that results are proportionate to the means employed in a geometrical, not an arithmetical, progression. In other words, overly strict economy does not pay. There lies a source of misunderstanding. Too often, it has been believed that making an expert and \$10,000 worth of equipment available to a government was enough to solve the problem of audio-visual aids in a given Member State. Audio-visual aids do not have this magic quality. They require serious study and, first of all, serious thought about the place which they should occupy in a budget. Pedagogical problems always end up leading into budgetary problems—that is, in the long run, economic, social and political problems. The educator must play his pedagogical role. The tool which is offered to him—and this is the case of audio-visual tools—

can multiply the activity of the educator in large proportion. Therefore, the political authorities must be convinced of the necessity of a financial effort which is often considerably large. That is a point of view which often escapes the educator: he must also educate administrators and political authorities. Many mistakes begin here.

So far, we have talked about audio-visual 'aids' and 'means'. Educators obviously consider them from this angle in the best of cases. But will this tremendous development of mass information media which we previously mentioned continue to allow itself to be domesticated? Let us go to the heart of the matter: must we continue to consider these information media as blind forces whose unleashing—and, as far as the educator is concerned, the unleashing beings where his own control ends—would be an educational and cultural catastrophe? Or, to put things in a less impressive but equally embarrassing way, cannot audio-visual 'means' be allowed to play their role without the help or simply the intervention of the educator? Before issuing a condemnation without any possibility of appeal, perhaps it might be wise to remember that films, radio and television can only be arbitrarily separated from the social, economic and cultural context which gives them their means of existence. No doubt, the study of these problems takes us a long way from modest filmstrips, flannelgraphs, and even traditional black-boards... which are still a luxury for thousands of schools.

Let there be no misunderstanding. We know the importance of pedagogy in the use of audio-visual aids. We know that the training of good educators—in this case, good users of these didactic means—is a long and difficult matter. We know that we must think about the desperate problem of training teachers. But pedagogy itself is only a means whose end is education. And education, in the long run, is only a contribution—naturally, of capital importance—to the integration of the individual into a given society. It is in this perspective—from their production to their final use—that we must look at audio-visual aids and the various questions which they raise.

PRODUCTION OF READING MATERIALS FOR ADULTS

THE NEED FOR SPECIALLY PREPARED literature for adults was felt when, over thirty years ago, the first night schools for adults were started. Since independence, the increasing interest of the Government of India and Unesco has given great encouragement to the production of reading material and, as a result, there are now a number of agencies which specialise in this particular field.

Literature for adults is not just literature. It is reading material with a pre-set purpose for a pre-determined audience. If the product does not serve its specific aim, it is worthless. Writing for adults has, therefore, to be considered both as an art and a science.

Before the "book" reaches the intended audience as a finished product it has to pass through a number of stages, during which it is handled by qualified and trained persons. A brief description of some of these stages will give an idea of the elaborate procedure that has to be adopted.

Process of Production

The process of production begins with what is called 'topic study'. Who is to decide on what topics the material is to be prepared? The authors? No. The producers? No. It should be the privilege of the readers only. The object of producing the material is not fully served unless the topics selected are in accordance with the preferences shown by the intended readers. Although this is an accepted principle, yet like many other principles it is not generally adhered to. However, scientifically speaking, this is the point where the production process should start, because, unless the selection of topics is based on the known needs and interest of readers, it will be an arbitrary and hit-or-miss affair.

After selection of the topic, the preparation for writing the manuscript begins. An author is chosen who draws up a plan of the book. Those agencies which can afford to work on scientific lines generally have a team of writers, illustrators, and editors, and all

of them are actively associated in the programme of opinion survey. This gives them some idea not only about the needs and interests but also about the cultural and economic background of the would-be readers. In such agencies, the job of selecting the author is easy. Generally, one of the authors who have participated in opinion survey volunteers to write the manuscript. If the proposed topic is of a technical nature, then advice has to be taken from an expert also. If, fortunately, the expert himself can write the manuscript, that is ideal; generally, a discussion is held in which author, editor, and expert participate and thus the author is able to obtain maximum information on the technical points.

Having collected and assimilated the material, the author, in consultation with the editors, chooses the form. It is up to him to decide whether the matter could be presented most effectively in the form of a story, a dialogue or a narrative.

The quality of the material produced by the author depends entirely on the labour and care that he devotes to the task. He has to operate under a strict discipline. His audience is a special category of people whose education is very limited and who are not expected to know much of matters outside the interest and concern of their own local community. This condition restricts the author's freedom. He cannot indulge in any form of 'self-expression'. In order to produce what is technically called readable material, he has to be simple and clear and to adapt his vocabulary strictly to the standard of understanding of his readers. He has to avoid technical words and limit the use of new or difficult words. His success depends on how far he has been able to subject himself to this discipline.

When the manuscript is ready from the author's point of view, it is sent to the editor, whose job is as specialised as that of the author. He reads and re-reads the manuscript from the angle of the intended audience. He checks every word, every phrase and every expression, changing and even

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re-writing what according to his judgement is inappropriate. After the editing, the manuscript is sent back to the author with the question whether he agrees to the alterations and changes. In case of difference of opinion there is a discussion, and although the final decision rests with the editor, it is not to be exercised arbitrarily. Then the expert examines the manuscript to see that the factual information is correct. The final judge is not the editor but the group of would-be readers to which the manuscript is carried for testing.

Taking the manuscript to the field is the step which gives to the art of production of literature a scientific basis. It is here that the author and editor are brought face to face with representative members of their intended audiences, and they try to find out their reactions through a series of questions. These questions are carefully prepared for eliciting reactions about each and every aspect of the manuscript, so that it may be revised in the light of these reactions. It is only when the manuscript has been tested and suitably revised that it is ready for the press.

Generally, the illustrations are prepared when the manuscript is in the editing stage, and by the time the text is ready for testing, the illustrations also are ready and are put to a test along with the manuscript.

After this the manuscript stage is over. Now a number of decisions have to be taken regarding the printing of the book—the size, the cover design, the type, the number of lines to a page, the margin, the arrangement of the illustrations, etc. All these things contribute towards making a book readable and attractive.

This, in short, is the procedure involved in the production of reading material. It cannot be claimed that all the agencies who are engaged in the production of such material follow it strictly. That, however, is a different matter.

Task Ahead

Although, during the last ten years, a considerable quantity of reading material has been produced, yet the need for more

and better produced material has not diminished. The audience for this type of material and with it the demand for quality books is fast expanding. In order to ensure that future development will be on scientific lines and that the quality of the material will constantly improve, an elaborate programme of research and training has to be undertaken in the many problems involved in the preparation, production and utilisation of reading materials, the methods and techniques of teaching and the promotion of reading habits. The work of the producers is not over after the book has been put on the market. Evaluation of the material produced is as important at this stage as at any other. The process of production is not complete until it has been ascertained how far the product has served its purpose. It is only in the light of an evaluation report that future production can be improved.

Realising the need for a permanent research programme some agencies, like the Bombay City Social Education Committee, the Mysore Adult Education Council, Literacy House, Lucknow, and the Jamia Millia have set up research units. This is a healthy trend which needs more encouragement in the form of financial assistance and assignment of projects.

There is also need for training more and more authors, editors, book designers and illustrators. More literacy workshops should be organised to train the authors and illustrators already working with voluntary agencies and private publishers. In these workshops emphasis should be not only on the technique of writing but also on testing and evaluation.

Weakest Point

Distribution and sale is the base on which the whole programme of book production rests. Unfortunately, this happens to be our weakest point and demands immediate attention. There is need, not only for research in the problem of promotion of sale but also in methods of developing alternative means for reaching the readers. The economic condition of the people in general is a great obstacle which is not likely to be

removed in the near future, and there is little chance that the sale of these books to individuals will substantially increase. To some extent sales could be increased if the prices were substantially reduced through large-scale production. But large-scale production itself depends on the extent of the demand. There are two ways out of this vicious circle. One is to subsidise production, so that the prices can be reduced; the other is to develop a library service to reach the maximum number of readers. The Central and State Governments are already assisting promotion of sale in the form of cash awards and purchase of selected books. In compliance with the recommendation of the Murree Seminar held in

1956, Unesco also has recently instituted some awards for encouraging authors. In spite of all this, there is no doubt that encouragement and assistance is needed on a far bigger scale.

It is also necessary to ensure that the books purchased by the Central and State Governments are put to the maximum possible use. These books are distributed through the community projects, social education departments and libraries. These channels of distribution being under the direct control of the State, it should be possible to ensure that the books reach the intended readers and help to create a demand for more and better books.

SMILE AWHILE

Teacher : What is the shape of the earth ?

Pupil : Round.

Teacher : How do you know it is round ?

Pupil : Well, it's square then; I don't want any argument about it.



"Have you noticed the utter absence of comment upon my last play ?" asked the author, of a friend. "It is plain that I am the victim of a conspiracy of silence. What would you do about it" ?

"I'd join it if I were you," the friend quietly replied.

Roundup of activities **M**inistry of education

ELEMENTARY AND BASIC EDUCATION

National Institute of Basic Education

The following new publications were released from the press:—

- (a) Buniyadi Talim—April 1960 issue
- (b) Difficulties of Basic School Teachers
- (c) Measuring Educational Potentiality of Crafts
- (d) Nibe Educational Psychology—Seminar No. 1.

Following the decision to take up a middle school at Chhatarpur for its improvement, a meeting was held at the Institute between the concerned members of the staff and the educational authorities of the Delhi Municipal Corporation. Some preliminary details of the work were discussed at this meeting. Among other things, it was decided to hold a workshop of the staff of the school and the concerned supervisory staff from 1st to 14th July, 1960, with a view to devising the plan of work for the academic year 1960-61.

The Delhi Municipal Corporation is organising a refresher training course for the teachers of primary schools falling under the orientation programme. The Institute gave its suggestions regarding the syllabus for the refresher course, programme of lectures, methods to be followed and daily programme etc., to the sponsoring representatives of D.M.C. and Delhi Directorate of Education.

Basic Teacher-Training Schools

All the State Governments and the Union Territories have been requested to include Community Development in the syllabus of the Basic teacher-training schools.

Teacher-Training

Under the centrally sponsored scheme of expansion of teacher training facilities, administrative approval of the Government of India has been accorded to the following States for the amounts shown against each during 1960-61 :

	Rs.
Andhra Pradesh	29,68,000
Mysore	18,97,000
Jammu & Kashmir	69,000

Compulsory Primary Education in Delhi

A bill to provide free and compulsory primary education in the Union Territory of Delhi was moved in Parliament by the Union Minister of Education in April, 1960. After preliminary discussion it has been referred to a Joint Select Committee of Parliament.

Commonwealth Scholarships

Under a Scheme of Educational cooperation among different Commonwealth Countries, offers of some scholarships have been received for the training of Indian teachers in teacher training institutions abroad. To select suitable candidates for awarding these scholarships all State Governments and Union Territory Administrations have been requested to suggest names of suitable candidates with their particulars.

Regional Seminars on Compulsory Primary Education

In connection with the implementation of the programme of providing free and compulsory primary education, three Regional Seminars were held at Puri, Mahabaleshwar and Bangalore from 10th to 15th May, 1960, 20th to 25th May, 1960 and 3rd to 8th June, 1960, respectively. Senior officers from the Education

Departments and Directorates from (i) Assam, Bihar, Orrisa, West Bengal, Manipur, Tripura and Andaman and Nicobar Islands (ii) Maharashtra, Gujarat, Rajasthan, and Madhya Pradesh (iii) Andhra Pradesh, Mysore, Madras, Kerala, Pondicherry and Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi Islands, participated in these seminars. Recommendations made by each seminar have been sent to the participants of the later seminars for their information. The recommendations of the later seminars were also sent to the participants of the earlier seminars.

Production of Literature

VI Prize Competition for Children's Literature

The entries received are under examination.

Production of Literature and other Material for Basic Education—Monographs on Various Aspects of Basic Education

One more monograph entitled "Inspection of Basic Schools" has been finalized.

The different parts of two source books on General Science and Social Studies are being written by different authors selected for the purpose.

Production of Guide Books for Basic School Teachers

The State Governments have been requested to recommend the names of suitable Teacher Training institutions that could be entrusted with the writing of guide books of different grades on different subjects.

International Exhibition and Festivals of Children's Books

The Government of India had appointed an *ad hoc* Committee for selecting books for International Exhibitions and Festivals of Children's books. The books received so far in Hindi were examined by the Sub-Committees appointed for Hindi books and about 250 books have been selected.

Steps are being taken to collect more books in the regional languages.

Educational Tours of Teachers

The State Governments/Union Territories have been informed of the continuation of the Central Scheme of "Educational Tours of Teachers" for the year 1960-61. Under this scheme, each State/Union Territory may sponsor one party of teachers for which the Central Government will reimburse expenditure of the concessional railway fare incurred, as far as possible, but not exceeding Rs. 1,000 to each State Government. The Union Territories are to meet the expenditure in this behalf from their respective area demands.

A sum of Rs. 658 has been sanctioned to the Government of Uttar Pradesh as reimbursement of the concessional railway fare incurred on an educational tour by a party of teachers sponsored by the State Government during 1959-60.

Financial Assistance from Minister's Discretionary Fund

A grant of Rs. 10,000 has been sanctioned to the Mahila Charkha Samiti, Patna, towards the construction of the building for the Balbari of the Kamla Nehru Shishu Vihar, Patna.

A grant of Rs. 10,000 has been sanctioned to the President, Shikshan Mandir, Jalgaon, East Khandesh, towards the various developmental activities which the Shikshan Mandir has undertaken.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION

Establishment of State Councils for Women's Education

In view of the importance of associating non-official agencies and opinion with this work, the Government have accepted the recommendations of the National Committee on Women's Education for establishing State Advisory Bodies and accordingly have requested the State Governments/Administrations to set up State Councils for Women's Education on the lines of the National Council for Women's Education set up at the Centre.

All the State Governments except Kerala, Madras and Andhra Pradesh have

established/decided to establish such Councils.

Appointment of Women Joint or Deputy Director

The Government have broadly concurred in the recommendations of the Council for the appointment of a woman Joint Director to be in charge of the programme for the education of girls and women and had accordingly recommended to the State Governments that there should be in each State Department of Education, a Deputy or Joint Director of Women's Education.

All the State Governments except Kerala, Madras, Maharashtra, Gujarat and Andhra Pradesh have accepted the recommendation and all these States have already made suitable appointments.

Targets for the Enrolment of Girls in the Third Plan

State-wise targets of enrolment of girls for the Third Five-Year Plan have been prepared by the Ministry for all stages.

At the Primary Stage : It has been proposed that 50% of girls in Jammu and Kashmir, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh and 90% of girls in other States should be enrolled.

At the Middle Stage : The proposed targets for enrolment of girls are 12.5% for Jammu and Kashmir, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh and 25% for other States except Kerala and Delhi.

At the Secondary Stage : The proposed targets for enrolment of girls are 5% for Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh and 10% for the other States except Delhi and Kerala.

Special Programme for the Third Five-Year Plan

All the State Governments and Administrations have been requested to draw up special programmes on the lines recommended by the National Council for Women's Education with a view to overcome the difficulties that stand in the way of the education of girls and women.

Such programmes have been drawn up by Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Laccadive and Minicoy Islands. The remaining State Governments are in correspondence with the Ministry in connection with finalisation of their proposals.

National Council for Women's Education

The second meeting of the National Council for Women's Education scheduled was on the 5th and 6th of August, 1960 to discuss the details of the special programme for the education of girls and women during the Third Plan period, in the light of the reduced allocations for education as a whole.

Expansion of Girls Education and Training of Women Teachers

State Governments/Union Territory Administrations have been informed of the allocation/overall ceiling available to them, as given below, under the scheme for proposals to be implemented during 1960-61 and have been asked to go ahead with the implementation :

Name of State Government/ Administration	Allotment Rs.
Andhra Pradesh	5,69,000
Assam	1,65,000
Bihar	8,26,000
Bombay	7,34,000
Jammu & Kashmir	97,000
Kerala	94,000
Madhya Pradesh	5,68,000
Madras	4,94,000
Mysore	3,54,000
Orissa	3,61,000
Panjab	3,00,000
Rajasthan	3,86,000
Uttar Pradesh	13,84,000
West Bengal	4,24,000
A. & N. Islands	500
Delhi	23,500
Himachal Pradesh	29,100
Manipur	13,900
Tripura	14,000
L.M. & A. Islands	3,500
Pondicherry	10,000

Administrative approval for Rs. 4,12,725 has been issued to Andhra Pradesh for

implementation of the Scheme during 1960-61 while proposals received from Assam, Tripura, Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindive Islands, Manipur, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa are under examination for issue of administrative approval.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Central Advisory Board of Education

The Proceedings of the 27th meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education held in February, 1960, were finalised and forwarded to all concerned for necessary action.

Informal Meeting of Directors of Public Instruction/Education

The minutes of the informal meeting of Directors of Public Instruction/Education held on 3rd February, 1960, were finalised and forwarded to the authorities concerned for necessary action.

Secondary Education Journal

The April 1960 issue of "Secondary Education" was brought out during the quarter under report.

Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

The following grants were sanctioned during the period under report :—

Name of the Institution	Amount paid	Purpose of grant
Gujarat Research Society, Bombay, Maharashtra State	Rs. 45,000 (3rd instalment)	Construction of a building for the institution.
Y.M.C.A., Bangalore, Mysore State	1,780	Construction of Counselling centre.
Ramakrishna Mission Ashrama, Parganas, West Bengal	10,000 (4th and final instalment)	Construction of a building for the students' Home.
Ramakrishna Mission, Cherrapunji, Assam	1,250 (3rd and final instalment)	—Do—
Dr. Alagappa Chettiar Training College, Karaikudi, Madras State.	1,440	Continuation of Educational and Vocational Guidance Centre.

Union Territories

In view of the acute shortage of teachers under the following categories, it has been decided, as a special case, that temporary untrained teachers recruited by the Directorate of Education under these categories may be granted extraordinary leave in relaxation of Rule 14 (b) of the Revised Leave Rules to enable them to undertake training at a Teachers' Training institute, provided they have put in at least one year's satis-

factory service and furnished an undertaking in writing to serve the Government for a minimum period of three years after the date of completion of their training:

- (i) Graduate and Post-Graduate teachers in Physics, Chemistry and Biology (Men and Women).
- (ii) Graduate and Post-Graduate Teachers in Mathematics, Domestic Science, Drawing and P.T. (Women).

Sanction has been accorded to the creation of a post of Education Officer in the scale of Rs. 300-25-500 in the L.M.A. Islands. The existing post of Assistant Education Officer will be abolished as and when the post of Education Officer is filled up.

It has been decided that, in view of the shortage of teachers under the following categories, both in Government and Government aided schools in Delhi, these teachers may be treated as technical personnel for purposes of retention in service beyond the age of superannuation and granted extension liberally up to the age of 58 years in accordance with Ministry of Home Affairs O.M. No. 33/2/58-Estt., dated 20th September, 1958 :

- (i) Graduate and Post-Graduate Teachers in Physics, Chemistry and Biology.
- (ii) Women Graduates and Post-Graduate Teachers in Mathematics, Domestic Sciences, Drawing and P.T.I.'s.

In order to enable the managements of Government aided private schools in Delhi to improve the educational standards of their schools, it has been decided that they may be permitted to charge a special development fee from students to cover expenses incurred by them in effecting improvements on which no grant is available under the grant-in-aid rules. The fee will be charged at a flat rate with the prior approval of the Director of Education for the following purposes:—

- (a) Appointment of additional qualified teachers in excess of the teachers admissible to the school under the grant-in-aid rules.
- (b) For teaching of special subjects for which no grant is admissible from the Directorate.
- (c) Purchase of special teaching aids and equipment.
- (d) Provision of special amenities to the children; like additional fans, supply of cold drinking water, medical aid and hobbies.

The managements will have to keep a separate account of this fee which would be open to inspection and periodically audited by the Director of Education, Delhi, who would

ensure that the fee realised is actually and entirely utilised for the purposes specified above and that no profiteering is resorted to by the school managements. It would be specifically ensured that collections from the special fee are not utilised by the managements for meeting their share of the recurring expenditure on the maintenance of the schools.

It has further been decided that donations charged by private schools in the past and which were held under objection by the Directorate of Education should be regularised and the withheld amount of the grant-in-aid reimbursed to them on the condition that the amount refunded will be utilised by them for building a reserve fund or acquiring permanent assets which may yield annual recurring income or for constructing a school building. It has further been decided that the donation charged by the Parent-Teacher Associations in aided schools should be stopped forthwith.

Sanction has been accorded to the grant of scholarships to students belonging to the L.M.A. Islands for study in classical languages in Colleges on the mainland.

Administrative approval has been given for the construction of 15 pre-fabricated school buildings in Delhi at a total cost of Rs. 15,18,900.

Central Institute of Education

The Teachers' Study Circle met twice and discussed the following topics:—

- (i) Some similarities and differences in Secondary Education in India and U.S.A.
- (ii) Teaching of English to Beginners.

Extension Service Department

- (i) A short course on the 'Improvement of English Pronunciation' was held from 5th to 7th April. Prof. J. M. Ure, Education Officer, British Council, guided the participants.
- (ii) A seminar on 'Improvement of Handwriting in English of Local School Children' was held on 9th April 1960.

- (iii) A seminar on the 'Effective use of Bulletin Boards' was held on 22nd April.
- (iv) A short course for four days was organised for teachers of geography during May.
- (v) A Principal's Seminar was arranged from 20th to 31st May. The topics discussed were: 'Organising schools for Effective Learning', 'How to Establish Relationship in Schools' and "Organisation of Hobby Clubs in Schools". Shri B. D. Bhatt, Shri Hemarajani, Shri P. N. Kirpal and Shri A. K. Singh initiated the discussion.

Central Bureau of Text Book Research

A chapter on "Addition for Class II" has been completed. The skeletal outline of the Analysis sheet for History Textbooks for Primary Grades has been completed.

A Lesson Plan in Social Studies on the life and teaching of Gautam Buddha has been prepared for Class V.

Exercises for the following lessons were prepared:

United Nations Children's Fund.
World Health Organisation.
International Labour Organisation.
Food and Agricultural Organisation.
International Civil Aviation.

Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance

Science Selection Battery

The final drafts of the five sub-tests of the battery are ready. The co-efficients of reliability have been determined for all the sub-tests.

Guidance Battery

The foreign and Indian tests available in the Guidance Laboratory are being reviewed with a view to being included in the proposed battery.

Class VIII Selection Tests

The school marks of students in eight girls' schools were analyzed to determine the significance of the difference between the marks of students who have failed and those who have passed in Class IX.

As a part of the same project, correlations have been found for the Raven's Progressive Matrices and school marks in Social Studies as well as between the C.I.E. Verbal Intelligence Test and school marks in Social Studies.

Training

The possibility of introducing more work in guidance in the B.Ed. and M.Ed. courses of Delhi University was explored. As a result some changes have been proposed in the B.Ed. syllabus.

Occupational Information Programme

A two-day seminar on Occupational Information in the Guidance Programme was organised by the Bureau on April, 7 and 8 and was attended by 19 teachers from the local schools.

Guidance Laboratory

Thirty-six clients were given individual guidance during the period under review. Some counselling sessions were also held with the parents of the clients.

Coordination

The Bureau has been making preparations for the convening of the first conference of Heads of Government Bureaux of Guidance. The agenda for the conference has been prepared.

Promotional Activities

A proposal for minimum targets for guidance in secondary schools in the country during the Third Five-Year Plan period was prepared and placed on the agenda of the second meeting of the All-India Council of Secondary Education. The Council has passed a resolution recommending the implementation of the scheme.

Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education

Examination Unit

Ten Evaluation Workshops were organised in the various selected training colleges for the benefit of the staff of the training colleges. The duration of each workshop was ten days and it covered two or three out of a group of five school subjects, viz., science, mathematics,

social studies, English and the regional languages.

The second meeting of the Sub-Committee on Examination Reform was held at New Delhi on 25th May, 1960, when the problems concerning the next phase of examination reform in the country were discussed.

The Directorate brought out two more brochures on 'The General Concept of Evaluation' and 'Evaluation in Social Studies'.

Second Meeting of the All-India Council for Secondary Education

The All-India Council for Secondary Education held its second meeting at New Delhi on May 23 and 24, 1960. Various reforms of secondary education, with special reference to targets in the Third Plan were discussed.

Scheme of Strengthening Multipurpose Schools

Six more institutions were approved by the Ministry of Education for inclusion in this scheme. These schools are located in Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Madras States.

Seminars and Workshops

Two Subject Teachers' Seminars in English and Psychology were organised at Agartala and Hooghly respectively. Two Headmasters' and Educational Officers' Seminars were also held at Agartala and Cuttack.

A four-week course for Headmasters and teachers of multipurpose schools from the different States was organised at Tara Devi (Simla Hills) from May 5 to 29, 1960. Seventy-six participants attended the course.

Meeting of a Working Group of teachers of Practical subjects from multipurpose schools from the different States commenced at Srinagar on June 8, 1960. The meeting which will last six weeks is being organised for the purpose of preparing instructional material in the elective subjects (Technology, Agriculture and Commerce).

Extension Services

A four-week course for imparting instruction and training in the use of audio-visual equipment to the Co-ordinators of the Department of Extension Services located in Northern, North-Western and Eastern

Zones, was organised at the National Institute of Audio-Visual Education, New Delhi, from May 2 to 26, 1960. Twenty-four Co-ordinators attended the course.

Six-monthly grant-in-aid for the period ending 30th September, 1960, was sent to 47 Extension Service Departments.

Science Clubs

Assessment reports received from various Extension Services Centres of over 150 Science Clubs in their jurisdiction were reviewed. A study was made of the four reports of Science Clubs Sponsors, Conferences received so far and suitable further action taken.

Craft Education

A draft questionnaire on craft education in Secondary schools was prepared and sent to the Extension Services Centres for collecting the data.

Central Institute of English, Hyderabad

68 trainees were trained during the period from 15th March, 1960 to 30th April, 1960.

The Short Summer Course this time was specially meant for training Pre-University teachers in the use of the P.U.C. materials specially prepared at the Institute on the basis of research in the vocabulary of prescribed texts in the Physical and Social Sciences. Lectures were delivered to the trainees on the use of this material from 5th to 20th April, 1960. The trainees then observed the teaching of this material to 3 divisions of 80 post-matriculates each by instructors specially selected and appointed for the purpose. These students were selected from about twenty high schools of Hyderabad and Secunderabad.

The three divisions of post-matriculates mentioned above were taught till 5th June, 1960, for six weeks. A report on the implications of this project is being prepared and copies of the P. U. C. materials will be circulated to State Education Departments and Universities as soon as the report is ready.

Two Research Fellows have also been appointed for a year at the Institute with effect from July, 1960.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Conference of Vice-Chancellors

A conference of Vice-Chancellors of Universities in India was held at Khadakvasla on 15th and 16th June, 1960. Matters of importance like, "Student indiscipline", "Limitation of numbers", "Examination reform", "National service" etc., were discussed. The Conference was inaugurated by the Union Minister of Education and Dr. C. D. Deshmukh, Chairman, University Grants Commission, presided.

Publication of Foreign Textbooks

Under the scheme of publication of cheap editions of foreign textbooks, an informal discussion was held with the representatives of the Federation of Indian Publishers and Booksellers in June, 1960.

Home Science Education

A Home Science Consultative Conference was held in New Delhi from April 18 to 20, 1960, under the joint auspices of this Ministry and the United States Technical Cooperation Mission in India to survey the present status of Home Science education and research in the country and consider steps for its expansion. It was attended by delegates from Home Science institutions in India, American Consultants in Home Science, representatives of the U.S. Technical Cooperation and Officers of the University Grants Commission and Ministry of Education.

Ismail Girls' National Inter College, Meerut

Rs. 10,000 out of the Discretionary fund of the Minister for Education was sanctioned to the Ismail Girls' Inter College, Meerut, as a contribution towards the construction of a permanent building for the college.

Gurukula Kangri, Hardwar

An *ad hoc* grant of Rs. 25,000 was sanctioned to the Gurukula Kangri, Hardwar, towards its maintenance expenses during 1960-61.

Three-Year Degree Course

Rs. 35,00,000 was released to the University Grants Commission on account of the Commission's share towards the expenditure

incurred by the affiliated colleges on the implementation of the Three-Year Degree Course Scheme.

Teachers For Remo Secondary School, Sagamu (Nigeria)

A Selection Committee met on the 14th May, 1960 in the Ministry of Education to select teachers of Physics and Mathematics required by the Remo Secondary School, Sagamu (Nigeria).

Selection of Teachers for Islamic Cultural College, Port Louis

Miss Nurul Ain Siddiqui has been selected by the Manager, Islamic Cultural College, Port Louis, to serve as a teacher in the Islamic Cultural College for a period of two years for the present.

Members of the Court of the University of Delhi

The Rajya Sabha has elected Shri K. M. Pannikar to be a member of the Court of the University of Delhi, *Vice* Dr. Anup Singh retired.

Resignation of Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University

The President, in his capacity as the visitor of the University of Delhi, has accepted the resignation of the Dr. V. K. R. V. Rao, Vice-Chancellor, University of Delhi, with effect from 16th July, 1960.

Member of University Grants Commission

Shri P. N. Kirpal, Secretary, Ministry of Education has been appointed as a Member of the University Grants Commission *vice* Shri K. G. Saiyidain.

Maintenance Grant to Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi

A sum of Rs. 1,30,000 has been released to the Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi, for 1960-61.

Grant-in-aid to University Grants Commission

A sum of Rs. 1,00,00,000 (Rupees One Crore only) has been released to the University Grants Commission, New Delhi, being the Second instalment of grant-in-aid to the Commission for 1960-61.

Foreign Exchange to U.G.C.

Foreign Exchange of the value of Rs. 40 lakhs has been allotted to the University Grants Commission for purchasing equipment etc., by the Universities for the development of Higher Education and research for the period April to September, 1960.

Teachers in English for Afghanistan

A Selection Committee met in June, 1960 for selecting teachers in English for service in

Afghanistan. Four candidates have been selected by the Committee.

College for Girls in Delhi

With the concurrence of the U.G.C., the University of Delhi has opened a new College for Girls in Delhi with effect from the academic year 1960-61.

Grants and Stipends for Rural Education

The following recurring grants and stipends have been released to the Rural Institutes:

Name	Grants Stipends	
	Rs.	Rs.
Gandhigram Rural Institute, Madurai	40,000	—
Rural Institute, Amravati	66,200	—
Institute of Rural Higher Education, Sriniketan	1,00,000	4,540
Lok Bharati Rural Institute, Sanosara	10,000	960
Balwant Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Agra	53,200	—
Mouni Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Gargoti	45,000	4,780
Kasturba Rural Institute, Rajpura	20,000	1,400
Shri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalyaya Rural Institute, Coimbatore	50,000	8,740
Jamia Rural Institute, New Delhi	—	5,930
Rural Institute of Higher Studies, Birouli	—	3,420

Rural Higher Examinations

The annual examinations in all the courses were held by the National Council for Rural Higher Education at nine different centres in April-May, 1960.

The results of the these examinations have been declared by the Board of Examinations on 15th June, 1960.

Recognition of Diplomas in Rural Services and Diploma in Civil and Rural Engineering

The Government of Andhra Pradesh has also recognised the Diploma in Rural Services awarded by the National Council for Rural Higher Education as equivalent to the first degree of a recognised University for purposes of appointment in government service. The State Government of Rajasthan has also recognised the Diploma in Civil and Rural Engineering awarded by the National Council

for Rural Higher Education provisionally for a period of three years for purposes of appointment in government services.

AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION

National Institute of A-V Education

1,094 films and 11 filmstrips were issued to 164 members of the Library. 26 new members were enrolled bringing the total number of members to 1,366.

16 films and two filmstrips were previewed by the Preview Committee which met seven times during this period.

33 filmshows were conducted by the Mobile Cinema Van for the benefit of social and cultural organisations.

The Institute organised a month's course in Audio-Visual Education, for 20

coordinators, of Extension Departments of Teacher Training Institutes sponsored by the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education, Ministry of Education, New Delhi, during May, 1960.

At the request of the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, New Delhi, a short course for Vigyan Mandir Officers and Assistant Vigyan Mandir Officers, in the working and use of Audio-Visual Aids etc., was arranged in the institute from 27th June to 2nd July, 1960.

Production of Films

At the Inter-Departmental Meeting held during February-March, 1960 in New Delhi, the production of Films on the following subjects was sponsored by the Ministry of Education under the Production Programmes of the Films Division (Ministry of Information and Broadcasting) for 1960-61:

Universal Compulsory Primary Education

Shri J.P. Naik, Adviser, Primary Education, Ministry of Education, has been appointed consultant for the Film.

Student Teacher Relationship

Shri G.K. Athalye, Director, N.I.A.V.E. will act as the consultant of the Film.

National Physical Efficiency Drive

Shri P.M. Joseph, Principal, Lakshmi Bai College of Physical Education, Gwalior, has agreed to act as the consultant.

Let Us Sing Together

Shri Amal Hoem, of the A.I.R. will act as the consultant of the Film.

Mental Health : (Difficulties in Learning due to emotional situation) :

Dr. Mansani, Chairman, Indian Council for Mental Hygiene, Bombay, has been appointed consultant of the Film.

Multipurpose Schools

Shri R.K. Kapoor, Deputy Educational Adviser, Secondary Education Division of the Ministry of Education, has agreed to act as the consultant for the film.

Physical Geography Series : ("Coastal Plains of India"):

Shri P.L. Deshpande of A.I.R. has been requested to act as the consultant of the Film.

Good Citizenship

As script for this film is already available with the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, no consultant has been appointed so far.

SOCIAL EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WELFARE

National Fundamental Education Centre

Training

The Officers under training in the fourth batch were taken on a study tour to Lucknow for observation and study of Literacy House, Planning, Research and Action Institute, Orientation Training Centre, Bakshi-ka-Talab and Sarojaninagar Community Development Block from 23rd to 28th May, 1960.

The training course for the fourth batch of District Officers Incharge of Social Education came to a close on 17th June, 1960.

Research

A press copy of the report on "Village Meeting places and Community (Social Education) Centres" in Mehrauli Block has been prepared.

Parts I and II of the research project on "Health Habits of Village People" in village Sukhrali, undertaken by Shri A.K. Sen, Doctor-cum-Health Instructor, are completed. Investigation schedule for part three is being finalised.

Parts one and two of the Research project on "Attitudes of Illiterates toward Literacy" in village Wazirpur, undertaken by Shri N.A. Ansari, Field Work Supervisor have been completed. Investigation schedule for part 3 of the project is being finalised.

Planning of Research project on "Superstitions and Taboos" undertaken by Km. S.V. Mehta, Sociologist, is in progress.

Research projects undertaken by other Instructors are at the planning stage.

Audio-Visual Unit

The Audio-Visual Unit of the Centre has finalised the pamphlet on "Use of Audio-Visual Aids".

Library

The Library of the Centre has now 4,210 books.

Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

Grants were released to Voluntary Educational Organisations as indicated below for development of their activities in the field of Social Education on the basis of sanctions issued during the previous years:—

Name of the Organisation	Amount of grant sanctioned
	Rs.
Ramakrishna Mission Institute of Culture, Calcutta	50,000
Ramakrishna Mission Boys Home, Rohra, 24 Parganas, West Bengal.	1,000

Scheme of Setting up Experimental Adult Schools in the Country

The scheme of setting up experimental adult schools started in July, 1957 entered the final stage and students are being given the final tests.

Production of Literature for Neo-Literates

Over three hundred books and manuscripts in various languages were received under the 7th Prize competition for the production of literature for neo-literates. These are being sent to different panels of reviewers for evaluation.

National Book Trust

The National Book Trust has been sanctioned a sum of Rs. 50,000 as grant-in-aid for carrying out its activities during the first half of the year 1960-61.

The Trust has released the following six more books for sale through the Publication Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting:—

- (i) to (iv) *India Today and Tomorrow* by Shri Jawaharlal Nehru, in Hindi, Marathi, Malayalam and Telugu.
- (v) *Memoirs of My Working Life* by Dr. Sir M. Visvesvaraya, in English.
- (vi) *Mahaparinirvanner Katha*, by Dr. S. Dutt, in Bengali.

Hindi Vishwa Bharati

The sixth volume of the Hindi Encyclopaedia entitled "Hindi Vishwa Bharati" which is being published by M/s Hindi Vishwa Bharati, Lucknow, in 10 volumes, with Government subsidy has been published and is now available in the market.

Central Braille Press, Dehra Dun

The Central Braille Press, Dehra Dun, has been declared a permanent organisation.

The Children Bill, 1960

The Children Bill, 1960 was discussed in the Lok Sabha on 29th April, 1960 and was referred by the Lok Sabha to a Joint Select Committee consisting of thirty members from the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha.

Central Social Welfare Board

Grants-in-aid amounting to Rs. 68,03,250 were given to the Central Social Welfare Board, during the period under review.

Rehabilitation of Displaced Persons and Students

42 certificates of Indian nationals received from the Government of Pakistan, through the High Commission of India in Pakistan, Karachi, were despatched to the persons concerned.

Six displaced students pursuing various courses of studies have been granted financial assistance through the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, involving an expenditure of Rs. 660.

Rs. 9,06,800 has been sanctioned in favour of the various State Governments and Union Territories for granting financial assistance to displaced students from West Pakistan.

YOUTH WELFARE AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Labour & Social Service Camps

Rs. 9,10,021 has been paid as grants to the Bharat Sevak Samaj, N.C.C. Directorate (Ministry of Defence), Y.M.C.A. and the University of Kerala for conducting approximately 660 Labour and Social Service Camps.

Campus Work Projects

Rs. 9,51,393 has been sanctioned to Universities and State Governments as instalments of grants for the projects approved during the years 1957-58, 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1st instalment of grants for 83 new projects approved during the current financial year.

National Discipline Scheme

Although the schools have closed for their summer semester, about 800 N.D.S. instructor-trainees have been receiving instruction in four training Camps at Ambala, Alwar, Poona and Rajpura.

Physical Education & Recreation

Financial Assistance

The following grants have been sanctioned under the various schemes :—

Rs. 20,000 to the Maharashtra Mandal, Poona, as the second instalment of Govt. of India's contribution to cover 50% of the expenditure on the construction of a Hall by the Mandal for the Certificate Course in Physical Education.

Rs. 34,600 to the K.S.M.Y.M. Samiti, Lonavala, Poona, for the promotion of scientific research in Yoga.

Rs. 500 to the Gujarat Research Society, Bombay, as the last instalment of the Government of India's contribution of Rs. 10,000 for the Society's research project of Survey of Weights and Heights of School Children.

Rs. 4,400 has been sanctioned to cover the payment of scholarship to the two scholarship holders under the Ministry's Scheme of Award of Scholarships for Study and Research in Indigenous Physical Activities.

Rs. 4 lakhs to the Board of Governors, Lakshmibai College of Physical Education Gwalior, to meet the recurring expenditure

of the College and expenditure on the construction of buildings.

Schemes of Study and Research in Indigenous Physical Education

In accordance with the Government of India's decision to award scholarships every year of Rs. 200 p.m. for a period of one year for study and research in indigenous physical activities, the Ministry of Education have invited applications for 1960-61 for study and research in Yoga, Malkhamb, Patta Jambia, Wrestling, Lezium, Lathi, Gymnastics and Classical and Folk Dances.

Minimum qualifications for the award of the scholarship are:—

- (a) Degree of an Indian University with Diploma in Physical Education;
- (b) Not less than three years experience of teaching Physical Education in an educational institution;
- (c) Age should not be less than 22 years and not more than 30 years.

Competence in the practical aspect of the activity or activities is desirable.

Sports and Games

The following grants-in-aid were sanctioned :—

Rs. 1,25,000 in favour of the Rajkumari Sports Coaching Scheme, New Delhi, for meeting the expenses on the scheme during 1960-61.

Rs. 1,968 in favour of the Amateur Athletic Federation of India, Patiala, for meeting the expenses on the visit of an Indian Athlete's team to Ceylon.

Rs. 3,581 in favour of the National Rifle Association of India, New Delhi, for meeting the salary of the paid Assistant Secretary attached to the Association.

Rs. 14,250 in favour of the Indian Hockey Federation, Patiala, to meet 75% of the admissible expenditure on the Coaching Camps at Hyderabad and Srinagar.

National Institute of Sports

The first meeting of the Boards of Governors, National Institute of Sports, was held in the Ministry of Education on 18th May, 1960.

The Board adopted its draft constitution. It was decided that the Institute may be registered as a Society under the Societies' Registration Act XXI of 1860.

The Board decided to appoint a Director to hold charge of the Institute. It was also decided that the Institute should start functioning from the 1st December, 1960 at Patiala.

A Sub-Committee to draft rules for admission, Syllabus of studies, bye-laws etc., was also appointed.

The following grants were sanctioned:—

- Rs. 1,501 in favour of the Rajasthan State Sports Council, Jaipur, for meeting the salary of paid Assistant Secretary, attached to the Council.
- Rs. 31,882 in favour of the All-India Lawn Tennis Association, New Delhi, for meeting expenses on the visit of a Junior Tennis Team to U.K. and the continent.
- Rs. 7,435 in favour of the Basketball Federation of India, Jaipur, for meeting the salary of the Assistant Secretary attached to the Federation.
- Rs. 4,715 in favour of the Services Sports Control Board, New Delhi, for meeting the expenses on the visit of an Indian Athletic team to West Germany.
- Rs. 8,715 in favour of the All-India Football Federation, Bombay, for the visit of the Indian Football team to Afghanistan.
- Rs. 982 in favour of the Amateur Athletic Federation of India, Patiala, for meeting the expenditure incurred on the invitation meeting held for the American Track and Field Team in April, 1959 at Delhi.

Rs. 2,537 in favour of the Kerala Sports Council, Trivandrum, for meeting the salary of the paid Assistant Secretary attached to the Council.

Rs. 2,936 in favour of the Swimming Federation of India, Calcutta, for meeting the deficit on the National Aquatic Championship held at Bombay in November, 1959.

The interest free loan of Rs. 1,10,500 sanctioned to the Indian Olympic Association has been converted into a grant-in-aid.

Scouting and Guiding

The Government of India have agreed to the payment of a grant of Rs. 30,000 for meeting part of the expenditure to be incurred by the Delhi State Bharat Scouts and Guides, on the construction of a Swimming Pool at their camping site near Humayun's Tomb. The first instalment of Rs. 10,000 was sanctioned for the purpose.

Payment of another grant of Rs. 775 to the State Bharat Scouts and Guides, Delhi, for the construction of an open air pavilion at their camping site has been approved. The first instalment of Rs. 3,000 was sanctioned for the purpose.

The following grants-in-aid were sanctioned:—

- Rs. 3,500 in favour of the Bharat Scouts and Guides, National Headquarters, New Delhi, for deputing two representatives for participation in the World Conference of Girl Guides and International Commissioner's Meeting in Greece and Golden Jubilee Celebrations in the United Kingdom.
- Rs. 3,414 in favour of the National Headquarters, Bharat Scouts and Guides, New Delhi, for organising two training Camps by the U. P. State Bharat Scouts and Guides.

Rs. 15,021 in favour of the National Headquarters, Bharat Scouts and Guides, New Delhi, for meeting 50% of the cost of the return air fare by tourist class on deputation of a contingent of nine guides including a leader to participate in the Golden Jubilee Celebrations of Guiding in the U.K. in July-August, 1960.

Youth Leadership Training Camp

A Youth Leadership Training Camp was held at Lovedale (Nilgiris Hills) from 20th June to 4th July, 1960. This was the tenth camp in the series which was attended by 27 teachers from the universities of Calcutta, Bombay, Jabalpur, Gorakhpur, Vikram, Andhra, Kerala, Madras, Gujarat and Marathwada for a short-term training in the techniques of organising Youth Welfare activities in educational institutions. The training was imparted through talks and discussions by experts on different subjects of vital importance on Youth Welfare. The entire expenditure to the tune of Rs. 7,145 incurred on the camp was borne by the Ministry.

Apart from the camps which are directly conducted by the Ministry, the universities are also requested to undertake these projects for which they are eligible to a grant of up to

Rs. 3,000 to meet 75% of the expenditure. During the period beginning from April, 1960, grants of Rs. 1,741 and Rs. 4,565 have been sanctioned to the Punjab and Gujarat Universities respectively.

Students Tour

Rs. 3,03,400 has been allotted to the State Governments for distribution among the eligible educational institutions for educational tours. In addition, a sum of Rs. 7,014 has been sanctioned to seven institutions directly.

PROPAGATION OF HINDI AND EVOLVING OF TECHNICAL TERMINOLOGY

Recognition of Hindi Examinations conducted by Private Hindi Organisations

On the recommendations of the Hindi Siksha Samiti, the Government of India have, for the purposes of employment under them, recognised the Hindi Examinations conducted by the following organisations for the standard of Hindi indicated against each. The recognition is in regard to the standard of Hindi prescribed in the equivalent examinations and is not to be treated as equivalent to full fledged certificates and or Degrees granted by Universities:—

Name of the Organization	Name of the Examinations Recognized	Standard of Hindi Prescribed in the Equivalent Examination
1. Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Allahabad	Prathma Madhyama (Visharad)	Matric B.A.
	Uttama (Sahitya Rattan)	Higher than B.A. but not equivalent to M.A.
2. Rashtrabhasha Prachar Samiti, Wardha ..	Parichaya Kevid Ratna	Matric Inter B.A.
3. Prayag Mahila Vidyapith, Allahabad ..	Vidushi Saraswati	Inter B.A.
4. Hindi Vidyapith, Deoghar	Praveshika Sahityabhushan Sahityalankar	Matric Inter B.A.
5. Travancore Hindi Prachar Sabha, Trivandrum ..	Pravesh Bhooshan	Matric Inter

Name of the Organization	Name of the Examinations Recognized	Standard of Hindi Prescribed in the Equivalent Examination
6. Assam Rashtrabhasha Prachar Samiti, Gauhati	Prabodh Visharad	Matric Inter
7. Hindi Prachar Sabha, Hyderabad	Visharad Bhushan Vidwan	Matric Inter B.A.
8. Bombay Hindi Vidyapith, Bombay	Uttama Bhasha Ratna Sahitya Sudhakar	Matric Inter B.A.
9. Maharashtra Rashtrabhasha Sabha, Poona	Prabodh Pravin Pandit	Matric Inter B.A.
10. Manipur Hindi Parishad, Imphal	Prabodh Visharad	Matric Inter
11. Akhil Bharatiya Hindi Parishad, Agra	Parangat	B.A.
12. Mysore Hindi Prachar Parishad, Bangalore	Pravesh Uttama Ratna	Matric Inter B.A.
13. Gujarat Vidyapith, Ahmedabad	Tisri Vinit Sevak	Matric Inter B.A.
14. Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha, Madras	Praveshika Visharad Praveen	Matric Inter B.A.
15. Hindustani Prachar Sabha, Bombay	Qabil Vidwan	Matric Inter

Remarks

(i) The examinations mentioned in column 2 conducted up to the end of the year 1960 by all the organisations mentioned in column 1 have been recognised.

(ii) Recognition to the examinations in respect of organisations from Serial No. 1 to 13 has been accorded for a further period of three years, i.e., up to the end of the year 1963. Thereafter, the position will be reviewed.

(iii) Recognition to the examinations conducted by the Gujarat Vidyapith, Ahmedabad (Serial No. 13) has been accorded in respect of only those candidates who answered

the question papers in the examinations through the Devanagari Script and the Vidya-pith should mention this fact clearly in the certificates and diplomas in future. As regards the diplomas already issued, the candidates should get a certificate from the Vidya-pith that they passed the examinations through the medium of Devanagari script.

(iv) Recognition for a further period beyond the year 1960, to the examinations conducted by the Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha, Madras, and Hindustani Prachar Sabha, Bombay, (Serial Nos. 14 and 15 respectively) is under consideration of Government.

Finalisation of Devanagari Alphabet Chart

The need for reforming the Devanagari script arose partly as a result of the necessity of standardising the shape and form of its characters and partly because of the requirements of typewriting and printing. The Government of India have now accepted the form of Devanagari script as given in the finalized alphabet chart brought out by the Central Hindi Directorate.

Translation Work

The Government of India have decided to initiate a project on translation and preparation of Standard books and text books on sciences, technology and humanities through Universities and academic agencies to help smooth change-over from English to Hindi. The work will be entrusted to the Universities and the academic bodies of the State Governments interested in the work. To begin with two hundred titles have been selected for translation into Hindi. The technical terms finally approved by the Government of India will compulsorily be used in these works.

Board of Scientific Terminology

Total number of terms evolved up to 30th June, 1960 is 248,039 and the total number approved by the Expert Committees up to the above date is 127,935.

Grants to Voluntary Organisations

The following grants have been sanctioned during the period under review:—

<i>Name of the Organisation</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Purpose</i>
Bhartiya Hindi Parishad, Allahabad.	3,000	<i>Ad-hoc</i> grant for meeting expenditure on holding 17th session of the Parishad at Delhi.
Akhil Bhartiya Hindi Parishad, Agra.	23,000	For the training of Hindi teachers at Akhil Bhartiya Hindi Mahavidyalaya, Agra.

Award of Prizes on Best Hindi Books

The last date for receipt of entries for the fourth competition was extended up to 30th September, 1960.

SCHOLARSHIPS**FOR STUDIES ABROAD***Government of India Schemes***Foreign Languages Scholarships Scheme**

The names of the 15 candidates selected for 1959-60 have been announced; their placement in institutions abroad is being arranged.

Applications for 15 scholarships for 1960-61 have been invited.

Programme for Exchange of Scholars Between India and China—1960-61

The proposal for the exchange of 6 scholars is under consideration.

Partial Financial Assistance (Loan) Scheme

Applications for partial financial assistance from 18 students were received. Loans amounting to Rs. 3,199-99 have been sanctioned. Rs. 1,973-65 has been recovered from students who were given loans in the past.

Union Territories Overseas Scholarships, 1960-61

The name of the selected candidate has been announced.

Passage Grants for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes Candidates

Applications for 12 passage grants (four each for three categories of students) to be awarded to candidates who are in receipt of merit scholarships but without passage cost, were invited by 15th July, 1960.

Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes Overseas Scholarships Scheme, 1960-61

Applications for 12 scholarships (four each for the three categories of students) have been invited by 1st August, 1960, through the Union Public Service Commission.

Awards Made by Foreign Governments/International Organisations/Institutions

British Council Scholarships, 1960-61

Names of 20 candidates have been recommended to the Council for award of 14 scholarships.

Canadian Council Fellowships, 1960-61

Names of seven candidates have been recommended to the Canadian Council.

Bulgarian Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Applications for two scholarships have been invited.

Commonwealth Society for the Deaf U.K. Scholarships, 1960-61

Applications for six scholarships have been invited.

Danish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Names of four candidates have been recommended to the Danish Government for award of the two scholarships.

French Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Applications for nine scholarships have been received and are under consideration.

Imperial Relations Trust (London University Institute of Education) Fellowships, 1960-61

Names of two candidates have been recommended to the Trust for award of the two fellowships.

Spanish Government Scholarship, 1960-61

Applications for one scholarship have been invited.

Turkish Government Scholarship, 1960-61

Selection for one scholarship is in progress.

Swedish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Names of two candidates have been recommended to the Swedish Government for award of the two scholarships.

Unesco Fellowships for Study of Journalism, 1960-61

Selection for one scholarship is in progress.

Unesco Fellowship for Production of Reading Material for Neo-Literates, 1960-61

Selection for one scholarship is in progress.

Unesco Grants for Regional Cultural Studies—Offer of one Fellowship to an Indian National, 1960-61

Selection of one scholarship is in progress.

Commonwealth Scholarships/Fellowships Plan—Conference at the Merkers College, Uganda, on Teaching of English as Second Language, 1961

It has been decided to participate in the Conference to be held in January, 1961; One delegate will be sent.

FOR STUDIES IN INDIA

For Foreign Nationals

Government of India Schemes

General Scholarships Scheme, 1960-61

Five more candidates have been selected, bringing the total to 123; selections for the remaining 17 scholarships have yet to be made.

Commonwealth Scholarships/Fellowships, Scheme 1960-61

The 50 Scholarships/Fellowships to be offered to foreign nationals have been allocated as under :—

U.K.	3
Canada	2
Australia	2
Newzealand	1
Pakistan	4
Ceylon	2
Malaya	3
Ghana	3
South Africa	2
Kenya	3
Uganda	3
Tanganyika	1
Zanzibar	2
British West Indies	2
British Guiana	1
Fiji	2
Mauritius	3
Nigeria	1
Aden	2
Northern Rhodesia	2
Southern Rhodesia	2
Nyasaland	2
British Protectorates in Persian Gulf	1

50

Second Commonwealth Education Conference, 1961-62

It has been decided to hold the Conference in New Delhi from 11th to 25th January, 1962.

Fellowships/Scholarships Offered by Unesco

Study tour/observation programmes for a national each from Belgium and Denmark have been arranged; the candidates are scheduled to come in October/December, 1960 respectively. Arrangements for Study tour/observation programmes for a national each from Greece, Italy and Sweden and two from Chile are being made.

For Indian Nationals

Merit Scholarships in Residential Schools, 1960-61

Applications for 1960-61 scholarships have been invited through the State Governments.

Post-Matric Merit Scholarships Scheme, 1960-61

Applications for 200 scholarships have been invited through the State Governments.

Research Scholarships in Humanities

Names of the 29 candidates, whose selections for 1959-60 have so far been finalised, have been announced.

Applications for 100 scholarships for 1960-61 have been invited through the Universities.

Scholarships for Higher Studies in Hindi for Students belonging to non-Hindi Speaking States, 1960-61

Applications for 110 scholarships have been invited through the State Governments.

Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes Scholarships for Post-Matriculation Studies, 1960-61

Grants amounting to Rs. 2,22,87,300 have been placed at the disposal of the State Governments and Union Administrations for awards of scholarships during 1960-61.

Scholarships/Other Educational Facilities to the Children of Political Sufferers, 1960-61

The State Governments of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Mysore, Orissa and Uttar

Pradesh and the Union Administrations of Delhi, Manipur and Tripura have so far agreed to implement the scheme in accordance with the pattern suggested by the Government of India.

RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS

In order to provide a forum for the discussion of problems connected with Educational Administration this Ministry has decided to bring out a Quarterly Journal entitled "The Indian Journal of Educational Administration and Research". The first issue of the journal is out.

Rs. 16,100 has been sanctioned to Gujarat Research Society, Bombay, to carry on research on a project entitled, "Construction and Standardisation of Achievement Tests for Children in Secondary Schools—Class V to VII in Gujarat", under the Ministry's scheme of Assistance for Research in problems connected with Secondary Education.

Educational Information

2,083 enquiries regarding educational facilities available in India and abroad were attended to during the period under report. A large number of visitors took advantage of the Information Library maintained in the Unit. The Information Section has undertaken the compilation of a pamphlet on "Facilities for Studies in India—Education, Law and Journalism" which will be of benefit to students seeking information about professional studies in India.

Publications

The following publications have been brought out during the period under Report:

1. Youth—Summer 1960 Issue.
2. The Education Quarterly—Summer 1960 issue.
3. Ministry of Education of India—Report on Educational Progress in 1959-60.
4. Catalogue of Priced Publications.
5. Report of the Regional Seminars on The Orientation of Elementary Schools Towards the Basic Pattern.

947 copies of publications were sold at the Casual Sales Depot of the Ministry during the period under report.

Educational Statistics

The publication entitled "Directory of Institutions for Higher Education, 1959" was brought out.

During the period under report, the statistics of nine States and nine Universities were scrutinised and discrepancies pointed out wherever necessary. Besides, the statistics of two Centrally Administered Areas were also checked.

Seventeen important statistical enquiries were attended to during the period under report.

NATIONAL ARCHIVES OF INDIA

Acquisition

33 authenticated copies of Bills of States assented to by the President, 1 map and 30 folded documents were received for custody. 7 documents and 3 manuscripts were acquired. 89 books including 1 book of Imperial Farmans and 10 documents and manuscripts were accessioned and 1,123 periodicals and other papers registered. Besides, 2 personal letters of Dr. N.B. Khare and some personal papers of Sir Jahangir C. Coyajee were received as gifts from Dr. N.B. Khare and Shri Talayar Khan respectively.

Repair and Rehabilitation

Amongst the several thousands of sheets of records and maps etc., laminated, repaired, bound or mounted, deacidified or otherwise scientifically treated for preservation. Special mention has to be made of the repair of a Scrole of the Holy Quran, another bearing Egyptian scripts; 364 letters and documents of Gandhiji and repair and binding of two manuscript copies of the Holy Quran.

Research and Reference

1,720 pages of excerpts from records were released to research scholars. The archival survey of Central Government Departments and of records of the former Central India States Agency was continued.

Technical and Advisory Service

Photo-duplication service was rendered, among others to the Italian Embassy, Dr. Wyon, Swami Nischalananda, Dr. Ralph H. Retzlaff, the Sadar-i-Riyasat of Jammu and Kashmir State, the International Academy of Indian Culture, the Gandhi Samarak Nidhi, the All-India Congress Committee and the Indian School of International Studies.

Information on various aspects and problems of preservation, and the free service facilities available in the Department was supplied to several offices and individuals. The offices of the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs and the Indian Agricultural Research Institute were inspected, and on-the-spot advice given on preservation of their records from white ants.

Research Laboratory

A sample of the paper used by the Government Press, Calcutta for preparing and printing docket-covers was examined with a view to ascertaining its durability. A sample of tissue paper and 17 samples of long cloth were tested for their suitability for repair of records and mounting of maps respectively.

Photo Duplication

The microfilming of the series of records "Home Department Miscellaneous Series" was continued and 56,099 exposures were made. The microfilming of rare and precious manuscripts from the Raza Library, Rampur, was also continued. Besides 5,595 enlarged prints, 5,640 photostat copies and 923 feet of positive prints were prepared and 2,790 feet of microfilm reels developed and 105 reels checked.

Publication

Further progress was made in printing volumes IV, VI and XV of the Fort William-India-House Correspondence, Volume XI of the Indian Archives and Part I of the Volume on "Selections from Educational Records". Fresh matter (covering over 350 pages) for inclusion in volume XV of the Fort William-India-House Correspondence was checked, compared and sent to the press. Fresh matter for volume XIV of the series was also checked and compared. The "Bulletin of Research Theses and Dissertations" was brought out. Progress was also maintained

in compiling volume XII (1796-97) and revising volume XI of the Calendar of Persian Correspondence, listing documents (in languages other than Persian) found among the Persian records of the Department and preparing an Index to the Foreign and Political Department's records (1781-83).

Indian Historical Records Commission

The first meeting of the National Register Committee was held on 7th April, 1960. The proceedings of the meeting were circulated to the members of the Committee and State Committees. Papers were invited for inclusion in the "Brochure of papers" to be published in connection with the 36th Session of the Indian Historical Records Commission.

Training in Archive Science

Theoretical and practical training in Archive-Science was imparted to the Diploma-Course Trainees.

Applications have been invited for the next session of the training course commencing from 1st September, 1960. Copies of the

"Information Circular" on training and application-forms were sent to all Ministries of the Government of India as well as the attached and subordinate offices, all State Governments, State Record Offices, Universities and other learned institutions in India to enable them to nominate their candidates for the next training session.

Exhibition

298 visitors including the Sadar-i-Riyasat of Kashmir, Yuvaraj Karan Singh, the trainees of the Secretariat Training School, New Delhi and the National Defence Academy, Mussoorie were shown round the Department.

Regional Office, Bhopal

100 letters of the Mutiny Papers were listed.

Facilities were provided for officials of the Gazetteer's Unit of the Government of Madhya Pradesh to consult records in connection with the revision of the District Gazetteers.

NATIONAL REGISTER OF EXPERTS AND RESEARCH WORKERS IN AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION

To maintain a National Register of Research Workers/Experts in the field of Audio-Visual Education, the National Institute of Audio-Visual Education invites names for inclusion in the list.

The names with details of academic qualifications, age and nature of research done may please be communicated to :

The Director
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

INDRAPRASTHA ESTATE, RING ROAD, NEW DELHI

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

FOR

THE BLIND IN INDIA

"The public must learn that the blind man is neither a genius nor a freak nor an idiot. He has a mind which can be educated, a hand which can be trained, ambition which it is right for him to strive to realise, and it is the duty of the public to help him to make the best of himself so that he can win light through work."

—MISS HELEN KELLER

THE ARRIVAL OF A BLIND CHILD in the family is regarded as a misfortune. While in the case of the poor he is usually neglected, in the case of the rich he is pampered. If not properly educated and trained, he becomes an economic liability with the poor, and commands luxurious indulgence with the rich.

In the absence of any statistics available no accurate estimate of the number of blind children can be given; but it is said that there are about 1,800,000 blind people in India—perhaps the highest number in a single country in the world. The Government of India is now organising a random sample survey of the blind in big cities, and then it may be possible to have a right estimate of the number.

In early times blind children were neglected all over the world. They were treated no better than domestic animals. They grew up knowing nothing save begging. However in India, because the history and legend of the people were carried by word of mouth, the blind often became prophets and high priests. The well-known poet Surdas was blind but he reached eminence.

During the middle ages in Europe, the blind were considered able only to walk in the streets singing and playing for entertainment or acting as stupid fools for the street crowd from whom they begged. The first earnest efforts to educate the blind were made

in 1784 by Valentine Haüy, a brilliant sympathetic Frenchman who had been moved by the plight of the blind persons. He started in Paris in that year a school for the blind with only one pupil, and successfully demonstrated that the blind could be taught the things that other children learned. This school, the first school for the blind in the world, is still working.

In the United States of America education for the blind started with the founding of three schools in 1832 in New York, Boston, Philadelphia. To-day each state provides free education for all its blind children. There are 53 residential schools and 24 public school classes for the blind. These schools have same education for the blind as the regular schools have for sighted children. Special emphasis is placed on physical education and handicrafts.

In the United Kingdom efforts to give education and training for the blind started much earlier. The first centre for the education and training for the blind in U.K. was started in 1791. Since then it has developed into a well-integrated system providing a comprehensive service for the blind of every description to bring education, independence and social security to them. It is the responsibility of the local authority to provide these facilities for the Blind.

Schools in India

In India the first school for the education and training of the blind was started at Amritsar (Punjab) in 1887 which later shifted to Rajpura and then to Dehradun where it is still working. Later on towards the close of the last century two schools for the blind were set up in Calcutta; and in the beginning of the present century two such schools were started in Bombay. Soon after a number of schools for the blind were opened in all the provinces (now states) in India. At present we have about 50 institutions for the blind in this country imparting education and training to 1,500 students. Almost all the schools with the exception of only a few are run by voluntary organizations with Government aid. The

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Central Social Welfare Board also gives liberal aid to such institutions.

In June, 1950 the Union Education Ministry founded the Training Centre for the Adult Blind at Dehradun open to all blind adult males. It has accommodation and training facilities for 150 trainees who are provided with free board, lodging and instructions and a small pocket allowance to cover the incidental expenses. Training at the Centre is primarily vocational and prepares the trainees for some remunerative occupations. Instructions are provided in a large number of useful crafts such as weaving, spinning, net making, basket making, caning of chairs, plastic moulding and candle making. Academic education is also provided to those who need it. Music classes are held for those who have a special aptitude for it.

Later on in 1957 the first training centre for the adult blind women was also set up at Dehradun on lines similar to that of the adult blind men. In January, 1959 a model school for blind children with facilities for kindergarten and primary classes was set up by the Education Ministry at Dehradun.

There are schemes under the Third Five-Year Plan to set up a number of sheltered workshops for the employment of the blind and other categories of the handicapped in important places in the country. In such workshops the workers will work or take work home and bring the finished products.

Employing the Handicapped

Placement in jobs of the blind is a very difficult work and a specialised one and so the Government has started a pilot employment office for the handicapped under the Employment Organization at Bombay to help the blind to secure jobs in industries and work centres. Similar employment offices are scheduled to be opened in other industrial cities. It has been the experience of the Indian industrialists that the blind in industries give equal and sometimes more out-turn than the sighted persons since the blind is exclusively concerned with the job and has no outside attraction. In the matter of discipline, punctuality and concentration in work he is second to none.

Unlike the western countries there is neither a home teacher service nor any correspondence courses for the blind available in this country for the benefit of those persons who become blind late in life and are not in a position to attend a regular institution for the blind. A home teacher is essentially a case worker who establishes rapport with the client, aids him in facing his problems realistically and is able to motivate him in arousing responsibility and a healthy attitude.

Braille System

Education to the blind is imparted through Braille system. On the recommendations of Unesco, a common Braille code has been evolved for all Indian languages and it is known as Bharati Braille. This code is in conformity with Braille codes of Ceylon and Malaya. The Bharati Braille code is now being used by almost all the institutions in India.

Braille is a system of embossed characters formed by using combination of six embossed dots arranged in three lines. The system was perfected by Louis Braille in 1829.

Writings or books published in Braille are read with fingers running lightly over the raised dots. For writing instead of pencil and paper a blind person uses slate and stylus and guide, generally about $8\frac{1}{2}$ " by 2" in which the paper is inserted ready for writing. The actual writing is done by means of a steel pen, or stylus which has a knob on the end with which to hold it. The stylus is used to punch out the Braille dots by hand. Blind boys and girls use Braille writers when they wish to do their work much faster. It is just like a typewriter in use. Because the Braille letters are big and occupy much space many words of common use such as "the" are abbreviated.

The Braille system is used not only for ordinary writing but also for mathematical and scientific notations. In fact blind children read and write Braille very much as seeing boys and girls read and write. Thus books published in Braille are read by the blind by running fingers just as seeing children read with eyesight.

Special subjects are also taught. Much emphasis is placed on physical education and

exercise for blind boys and girls so that they may grow healthy and strong. They are taught handwork in order to acquire ease of motion and to train them in some trade so that they can earn their living. Leather craft, upholstering of furniture, doll making, laundry work, chair recaning, basket weaving, rug weaving, broom making, net making, music, sewing, cooking, house keeping are some of the crafts taught to them.

Their personality is developed and they are taught the correct ways of behaviour. There are usually some unsightly physical manipulation such as swinging of head, sticking fingers into eyes, smiling in a vacant way, moving hands before the eyes etc. which are handled with tact and care.

Literature

During the recent years when the schools for the blind were established in the country on a larger scale, one of the greatest needs was for an ample supply of embossed books and special apparatus to be used in teaching the blind. The very small number of blind purchasers and the specialised nature of embossed printing resulted in such high production costs that the printing of these books could not be undertaken as a commercial enterprise. A Central Braille Printing House was, therefore, set up at Dehradun by the Government of India in the year 1950 to supply at cheap rates the books for the blind. It supplies textbooks in Bharati Braille and other school material of a specialised nature to the schools and classes for the blind in India.

A circulating library is the need as the blind will never be able to possess a book for the cost is too high. The books and magazines of a general nature printed in Braille could be passed on from one blind reader to another until each issue is read by a large number of persons in that area. Indoor games material specially suited to the blind could also be lent through this agency. This service can very well be started by the Braille Printing Press of the Central Government at Dehradun.

To meet the literary needs of the thousands of blind people who will never learn to read with their fingers the talking book has been developed in other countries specially the

United States of America. This is a phonographic book record. Novels and other books are recorded on long playing records just as are songs and dance pieces. To read a talking book the blind person plays the records on a special type of phonographic machine. These are called talking book machines and are furnished on free loan to blind persons. Since these are very costly it is not possible for a blind person to own them. The machine is also given free to them by the state. We in India need such a service for the blind so that a blind could write to the nearest library for the blind for the book he wants and it could be sent post free to him. The return of the book is also post free for him.

Some Facilities

Since 1958 free postal facilities are available in India for literature for the blind. The Indian post and telegraph department has exempted literature packets for the blind from payment of postage charges. The facility of free postal transmission is allowed to all literature intended for use of the blind not only within India but even to foreign countries. On an average 25,500 such packets for the blind are posted annually in this country.

A blind person on presenting at the railway station booking office a certificate from a registered medical practitioner to the effect of his blindness can obtain the concession ticket. He need not go to the Railway office for a concession order. A blind person accompanied by an attendant can travel on payment of only one single fare for the class by which they travel. A blind person travelling alone will get the ticket at one fourth of the usual fare.

There is adequate provision for scholarships for the blind and other categories of the handicapped. An *ad hoc* provision of Rs. 2,00,000 in 1960-61 exists for grants to institutions conducting training and research in social welfare and education of the handicapped.

Thus it will be seen that India is forging ahead in making provision for the care, education and training of its blind persons. The aim of all these facilities is to encourage them to be independent persons.

LITERACY FOR THE MILLIONS*

“THE STATE SHALL ENDEAVOUR to provide free and compulsory education to all children until they attain the age of 14”, so runs Article 45 of our Constitution. The current year 1960 is the deadline we had originally set for carrying out this constitutional directive. That it is a directive of considerable moment cannot be denied, for we cannot have mighty industrial projects set in motion and plan for a prosperous future on the one hand, and at the same time let our millions remain in a state of ignorance. But, in fixing the time limit at 1960, we overlooked the sheer number of infants whom our literacy drive had to cover. There was also, of course, the question of finance to consider. It shakes one to read the findings of the committee set up in 1950 which worked out the financial implications of educational development in India. The findings show that to give free and compulsory (a) Primary education to all children between the ages 6-14, (b) Secondary education for 20% of those completing (a), (c) University education for about ten per cent of those passing the High School and (d) a modest amount of technical education would cost nearly four hundred crores of rupees annually. This does not take into account the 200 crores of rupees required for school buildings. Now let us set against these the *actual* amount we spent in 1949-50, i.e., a 100 crores of rupees and we have an idea of what we are up against ! The gulf between the money *actually* spent and the money *required* to be spent is about as formidable as the gulf between the educated few and the uneducated many.

So in the light of economic realities, the problem had to be pondered over afresh. The Educational Panel of the Planning Commission has now recommended that the provision of universal, free and compulsory Primary education to our children up to 14 years could only be taken as our *ultimate*

aim. But as an *immediate* measure, we should concentrate on providing this education to all our children up to the age of 11. The task of introducing it should be completed by 1965-66. This is just as well, for the task is urgent, a point that needs no elaboration. The immensity of the task and the inadequacy of resources should not be allowed to deter us from making the effort and making it with sustained vigour. To wake up to the problem by fits and starts or to make perfunctory efforts would be to do no better than the dormouse in *Alice in Wonderland*. It woke up only to eat and with eating done, it went back to sleep again!

No doubt, the problem is colossal. The more one thinks about it, the deeper one's awareness becomes of its magnitude. The number of children, the rate of population—progressively on the increase; funds, teachers, school buildings—in short supply. The figures make staggering reading. In 1950 out of a total population of about 690 lakhs of children in the age group 6-14, only 210 lakhs of pupils were attending Primary and Middle classes. The enrolment increased to about 300 lakhs by the end of the first Plan. Simultaneously, during the same period the population of this age-group had risen to 750 lakhs. It is these hard, down-to-earth facts that led the Educational Panel of the Planning Commission to recommend, as a practical measure, the concentration of our literacy drive on the children of the age-group 6-11.

During the first Five-Year Plan, we attempted to raise the percentage of enrolment at the Primary stage of this age-group (6-11) from 40 to 53. We expect to raise the figure to 63 during the second Five-Year Plan. And during the third Plan period 1961-66, we are pledged to enrol all our children at the Primary stage. The programme is gigantic, and our experience in implementing it so far has shown the need for economies in all possible directions. Thus, we have had to

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adopt the shift-system, or to increase the pupil-teacher ratio to about 40:1, where practicable.

Taking our country as a whole, the overall figure of enrolment for Primary education by the end of the second Plan, as estimated, is about 330 lakhs. Census reckonings, the average duration of children's attendance at the Primary stage and the number of children from under-age to over-age groups, all taken into account, there will be 532 lakhs children to whom we shall have to provide Primary education before the target date. If we deduct the present estimated enrolment figure of 330 lakhs, we shall be left with 202 lakhs children who will have to be enrolled during the third Plan. As we have stated already, these are overall figures for the entire country and they do not take into account the infinite variations between one State and another.

An educational survey of India was undertaken by Government recently to identify and enunciate every distinct habitation and every Elementary school in the country. The survey has made detailed delimitations of school areas. One of the recommendations of the survey is that single-teacher schools should be provided for habitations with a population of 400 or below. The teacher-pupil ratio in these schools is to be 1:25. Roughly about 40 thousand new single-teacher schools will have to be opened during the third Plan period. The total number of teachers that will be required will be around four lakhs, which includes 0.9 lakhs for the single-teacher schools and 3.2 lakhs for the remaining schools. Needless to say, we have to provide considerable training facilities to these teachers. We have, on the one hand, to expand the existing training facilities and, on the other, to establish new training institutions. Our present calculations show that even with the best will in the world we shall have to wait till the end of the fifth Plan for the provision of the full quantum of *trained* teachers for universal Primary education. In the meantime we have to attract qualified persons, especially those without employment, into the teaching profession, particularly in our rural areas. During the past years we have achieved a reasonable

measure of success in this respect. To attract children to school, we have made arrangements, on a limited scale, to supply free mid-day meals to them. The total provision of Rs. 313 crores, the figure worked out in relation to the Primary education drive, is expected to cover the expenditure towards these mid-day meals as well.

This is not the end of the story. The provision of Rs. 313 crores also includes compulsory Primary education for our girls of the age-group 6-11. This poses special problems and it is going to take some doing to get all our girls of this age-group to go to school. We often hear that unless there are women teachers and schools specially set apart for girls, we cannot hope for much success in enforcing our girls to attend schools. There may be some force in this argument, but strangely enough there are instances of girls attending schools where there are only men teachers. Women teachers, however, are required and we have to find them in large numbers and we have to have them trained besides. It is of interest to note that the Central Government gives grants to State Governments on a hundred per cent basis to increase the number of women teachers. To give a fillip to girls to enrol themselves in Primary schools, Government has proposed to give attendance scholarships, prizes, supply books free of cost, free transport, in addition to merit scholarships. There is the larger problem of the education of our women in general and during the third Plan period, schemes for pre-Primary education, the provision of special educational facilities for adult women, to encourage women teachers to work in rural areas, to build hostels for girls and many more facilities have been provided. It will take a number of years before the problem of our women's education can be met adequately. Our immediate aim is to see that girls of the age-group 6-11 are effectively brought into the scheme of compulsory Primary education.

Literacy for the millions! The millions we have so far considered are confined to children of the age-group 6-11. What about the adult millions? A far bigger question and as we settle down to discover the answer, we find that problem follows problem, like Hydea's heads! So far the rate at which

we have raised literacy in the country as a whole is about one per cent per year. If there should be any noticeable advance, the process of wiping out illiteracy, according to calculations by experts, will have to be speeded up to at least two-and-a-half times the present rate. Even fortified and supported by posed Primary education drive, it will take more than twenty years from now to achieve complete eradication of illiteracy.

For a long time, our endeavours in Social education were directed to achieving bare literacy among the adults. The scope of our efforts was later widened so as to cover education in citizenship, health, agriculture and handicrafts. During the first and second Plans, Social education was made an integral part of the Community Projects programme. We spent about four crores of rupees on Social education during the first Plan. We have provided for five crores during the second Plan. During the third Plan, our schemes of Social education take into account the need for basic library service in villages and towns and the provision of a network of vocational courses as well as non-vocational courses for adult men and women. Facilities for education through audio-visual aids are to be increased and it is anticipated that in all we shall require a little over thirty-five crores of rupees during

the third Plan period to carry out our programme of Social and Audio-visual education.

To come back to the immediate task on hand, the literacy drive among our infant millions. Instructions in the three R's is not only going to be free and universal, but *compulsory*. This is something quite new in our educational effort and it poses special questions. Legislation there will be but to make compulsion really effective, by and large, we should depend on the professional educators—and the educated public—to draw on their powers of persuasion in getting the children to go to school. They will have to contend against traditional prejudices. And our millions are steeped in tradition. They are like that “being” of the English jingle, “which moves in pre-destinate grooves, in fact not a bus, but a tram”. The tram, like tradition, has its points, but its long-established rails should not be allowed to extend their sphere to the open road the bus takes. We are now all set to take our infant millions away from their old grooves and set them on the open road to knowledge. Granting we have every resource at our disposal—men, money, legal sanctions and what have you—we may yet miss the bus, without active public cooperation. For on that, ultimately, hinges the success of any democratic effort.

- I should have no objection to repetition of the same life from its beginning, only asking the advantages authors have in a second edition to correct some faults of the first.

—Benjamin Franklin

SCHOOL AS A MEMBER

OF THE COMMUNITY

DR. RADHAKRISHNAN, our Vice-President, in his Beatty Memorial lectures at McGill University, Canada, quoted Dr. Beatty as saying "McGill.....must be prepared to teach, not only within the College buildings, but to come off the hill into the streets, into the suburbs and country towns". The Indian Universities similarly should be prepared to teach, not only in the towns, but also in the villages and tiny settlements and, (this is important) must be prepared not only to teach but also to learn from their surroundings. This will follow naturally if my point, which is the title of this paper, is granted. I aim to show that, ideally, the school is a natural and integral member of the community, intimately and necessarily united with it, as a member of the body is with the whole body. That this is not the present state of affairs is an unfortunate malady.

Education in a Village Community

Let us first take the community in its original simplest form—the village.

In such a community, education originally would have consisted in the father passing on his own experiences to his son, teaching him to plough and hunt and fight, and the mother teaching her daughter to cook and spin and sew. One evening round the camp fire one man told a story. He told it rather better than the others. They asked him to repeat it. He did so and then sang a song—a song of the rain and the harvest, a song of fighting and hunting, a wild, strange song, but it pleased the people. It catered to a need. When the story teller got old, some enlightened father or mother thought 'it would be nice to have such a singer and story-teller in our family'. So they sent their youngest or weakest son, with a fowl, to the old man. Two or three other families may have done the same thing and so the first school began. It paid the old man to paint crude pictures and to convey this art to his pupils. Then he would have studied the stars in their courses, the time of rains or of drought and thus have primitive notions of geography and astronomy

to impart to his pupils. And so the school developed. If this old man was also the local priest, as is probable, primitive ideas of religion would also be taught. You will notice that this sketch does not come into the age of history as such, but rather that of pre-history or proto-history. Such a school would obviously have left no tangible remains. We can only judge from the oral traditions that were handed down and the way they were handed down.

Now the point to be emphasised is that the school was completely and naturally an integral part of the community in harmony with the community. The boys are trained for life. They may acquire one or two extra skills that help them in life, but they are by no means isolated from their family circle. They fit better into it.

A glance at the history of Western education would show how in fact this connection between education and the community was realised. From Socrates performing his mental midwifery on the young loungers in bazaar to Abolards' setting all Paris aflame with his theological lectures there is a certain harmony between education and the community. Education is a living part of a living body.

There appears to be now in India a sharp line of demarcation between the school and the community. Our task, then, would seem to be to breach this wall. This can best be done by two different but complementary movements; by bringing the school closer to the community and by bringing the community closer to the school.

A lot has already been done in this connection in India. Basic education, with due qualifications and properly administered, is a step in the right direction. One particularly promising movement, is *Sharamdan*. But it must be done in the right spirit. At its ideal best, *Sharamdan* should teach the boys that manual labour, far from being shameful, has a dignity of its own. It should make them understand that village labourers, though uneducated, are not necessarily lesser men than themselves. They may well be greater and finer. On the villagers' side it

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would help them to see that the schools are not 'spoiling' the boys. And let us face it. We are spoiling our boys if all we can give them is an intellectual snobbery that would shrink from letting the hand touch any instrument but the pen.

Fine Arts

But my particular plea is for a closer contact between the school and the community in a special direction, that of the fine arts—literature, music, dance, drama etc. India is being industrialised rapidly. This is useful and even necessary if we are to raise or even maintain present standards in a country of rapidly increasing population. But there is a danger. In catering for the body we may neglect the mind, in raising material standards we may lower cultural and spiritual ones. Man does not live by bread alone. I am not speaking here in a vacuum. I am drawing on our experience in the Industrial Revolution in Europe, particularly in England. Those were years of great material prosperity for some, but also of great spiritual degeneration for most. Money came in, but art, beauty and religion went out. That these latter are the things that really matter is the main point of this paper. I maintain that the soul, mind *Atma*, is more important than and should have preferential treatment to the body matter, *Sharir*.

It seems that India's industrial revolution is following in this respect, much the same pattern as that of England. In India spiritual and cultural values are declining. India seems to be joining the modern tendency to forget God and truth and beauty in quest of bread and money and pleasure. I know All India Radio is continually pouring out *Bhajans* and *rags* and improving talks, but who listens to them? Just walk down any street in any city. The so called music that is churned out from the innumerable loud-speakers appears to me to be a bastard child, the result of an unhappy union of the worst of East and West. Even if this were not true, but especially if it is, the school as the cultural centre of the community has a vital part to play in transforming and elevating the cultural standards of the community. It is a main function of teachers to combat this deadly tendency, to cater to this vital need, in

our schools and out of them. If teachers do not, who will?

Some Practical Suggestions

Let us first take a rural school in a village community as the simplest and the most natural set up. Suppose one evening after work the teacher assembles the villagers and tells them—'Now we are going to show you what the children learn in school'. Then get a child to recite a poem. The poem must be chosen carefully. There is no point in regaling the rustic crowd with a Hindi equivalent of 'To be or not to be'. In the beginning feed them with milk not meat. There must be a poem like Masfield's 'Renard the Fox', or Newbolt's 'Drake, he's in his hammock'. The poem should have movement and rhythm. It should as much as possible be within the experience and comprehension of the audience. Above all it must be well practised and well recited.

What is the result? The waste of an evening that could have been profitably spent on vocational training or cottage industries. So materialists will say. Wasted, by no means. This is to enrich them where they were poorest; to give them food where they were most hungry; to attempt to supply their greatest need. Their minds have been opened to something new; perhaps a taste has been developed that will leave the way open for much beauty and high pleasure. Man needs beauty. Man has a soul. And the soul cannot feed on dams and power houses. That evening this vital need has been catered for. But the work must not stop there. The teacher must go among the villagers and test their reaction. If they liked it (and it is the teacher's business to have seen that they did) he should give them more and repeat the same. If they are literate, written or typed sheets with the words should be distributed.

A more popular approach is through music and drama, though this needs rather more preparation. There is no need however, for elaborate stage sets and curtains and money. That is necessary if you want to impress the villagers and show them how clever you are. If you want to teach and inspire them just give them the play. The merit of great art lies in itself, not in its trappings. The villagers,

who are simple and understanding people will understand that. If the teacher is good let him recite or sing. Perhaps some of the keener and more talented among the villagers may want to learn. Perhaps the teacher may be able to teach them.

The other side of the coin. What can we get from the villagers? Lots. We should not despise folk art—folk dance, folk music, folk lore. We should remember that classic art of today was the folk art of yesterday. Shakespeare's plays were originally enjoyed most by the hoodlums in the five anna seats and were written for them to enjoy. The classical Greek plays, *Sophocles* and *Euripides* and the rest were produced by popular demand and awarded the laurel by popular acclaim. The villagers should be persuaded to recite and sing and dance. They will be pleased to do so. Then the teacher can learn their songs and dances and keep them.

In the towns the position is more difficult. It is very easy to give a concert for the parents and the rich and educated. But there the schools are neither teaching nor learning, they are just showing off. They are having a negligible influence on the community. They should try going into the factories and give them a concert in their lunch hour.

As for learning, one should see that any concert or film show worthy of visiting is visited by the boys. Local artists should be invited to give performances in the school. Then there is the value of a town for project methods in the social and physical sciences. For that the proximity of a town is invaluable.

The ideas put forward may sound ambitious and idealistic. But free India is a young and strong and healthy country. Let us have and realise our ideals now. We may not have a chance later.

DO YOU KNOW ?

- To provide residential and club facilities to foreign students, plans are ready for the construction of three international hostels—one each at Delhi, Bombay and Calcutta—at an estimated total cost of Rs. 40 lakhs.
- About 62 lakhs adults have been made literate in India since Independence.
- The Universities of Marathwada, Kerala, Rajasthan, Annamalai, Saugar, Delhi, Bombay, Aligarh, Andhra, Madras, Mysore, Gujrat, Osmania, Karnatak and Gauhati and Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapeeth have agreed to make available their library facilities including library membership to the public.
- The Ministry of Education is considering a proposal to establish during the Third Plan period a number of National Institutes to train women in cooperation, banking and business management, social services, fine arts and public administration.

TEACHING A LANGUAGE

AMONG OTHER THINGS language plays an important part in developing successful individuals in a democracy. The greatest medium to satisfy one's own needs or those of others, language occupies a primary place amidst the things one must achieve for his self-realization. Among the various ways in which the human being is superior to other animals is his ability to use language to facilitate adjustment to his environment. What is more, this superior position of a man can be kept up only on the basis of the use and development of language. Being the most effective way of communicating with others it governs one's enhancing social relationships.

Language is not an end in itself; it is just a means to serve so many ends in the living world. It has no life in it except when it is in use by people. In fact it has no content. It is an activity of people; as such it should be taught as an activity rather than as a subject. It would be better taught through performance and practice than through the study of its structure and its forms.

Ever-Changing

Ever-changing in its quality and ever-growing in its vocabulary and meaning, language goes on transforming itself through the use it undergoes by succeeding generations and in different regions.

American English represents the most typical example of the fact that language must change. The fast, industrial, and busy life in America and her developing civilization must tell upon all that comes in their way including the language which is the heart of the process. If language due to its rigidity and heaviness presents a block in a nation's march ahead—its growth in industry and human welfare—the block must be negotiated so as to make it supply and pliable for the progressive forces to forge their way ahead. Language must assist progress; as such it should be shaped and reshaped so as to become palatable and convenient for all purposes. People are masters in the process of language, they change with the change of times, and hence the changes that we come across in the use or

meaning of words, phrases and their structure. It is interesting to note that all the drill given by English teachers in the American schools has failed to change to usage of language by the American people who consequently make the same so-called mistakes and yet they do not deem them as mistakes. It is in this way that American English has come into being. A glance over this English indicates simplicity, short-cuts, abbreviations and a practical approach to language. Perhaps America's pragmatic philosophy of life does the trick in the matter of language too.

Usage

It is a matter of common experience that certain words in all languages mean a little different to people from their meanings given in the Dictionary. Usage which derives its sanction from a growing civilization goes a long way towards giving a word its meaning which is more apt and meaningful in a given set-up. Rules and structure may demand a certain modesty and surveillance from a language but popular usage demands self-gratification of the users since language is for use and is meant for the users, the latter triumph in determining what a word connotes most accurately.

Grammar is not the master of or the key to a language, as advocated by old grammarians. It only describes the way most people habitually use the language. In no way does it denote what is correct and what is wrong language. Grammar does not say that "owing to" is a preposition; as such it should not be used as a preposition. But most people use such a construction as a preposition and therefore it may be so classified. *On, with, in, to*—words used to express the relations of a word to another word—are called prepositional words because of their functional use and not because of a decree issued by grammar. "The place I am visiting is where I would meet a friend" is a structure used by most people almost habitually. Still textbooks and grammar would not accept it as correct. It appears that grammars describe the past usage of a language and hence the fact that the current

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usage differs from the one described in grammar.

Place of Grammar

This however, does not mean that grammar has no place in the school. It is indispensable for a language and is extremely useful provided it is taught in a meaningful and practical way. Psychologically the idea comes to our mind before its form; therefore grammatical structure should be incidental to the expression of ideas. Look at a student's composition, and point out his repeated errors in a mild and kindly way and in this way teach grammar incidentally. Teach grammar when the occasion arises and not otherwise *i.e.* when an error or a question arises or a situation demands. Children may be given the opportunity to hear and use correct forms of expression and they will conform to it. Hence the truth of "Good English is a matter of habit." Provide interesting language activities instead of eliminating errors as an end in itself.

It is yet to be seen whether effectiveness in spoken and written expression is due to a knowledge of grammar terms and rules. On the other hand it is known from common experience that practice in using sentence-structures, words, or phrases in one's own sentences does contribute to abilities to write and to speak correctly and freely. Mugging up of rules, discussion of language and repeated drills at best enable the child to wriggle out of the rigmarole of the scholastic process or the examinations. Drill would do some good to the students if it is constructive *i.e.* if the words drilled are synthesized with pupil's experience, if the students are facilitated by the practical use of the drilled words in putting across their ideas. Analysing the sentences of others to learn the use of words or structures though useful is not so productive.

When teaching the rules of sentence construction it would be better to let the students observe and think over the meaning of the words they use instead of looking into the parts of a sentence as classified by grammar. If they are required to complete a sentence, let them read a group of words and see whether the sentence gives to them an

impression of being a complete unit or that of being a disjointed and meaningless one, instead of trying to find the noun, verb, the subject and the predicate.

Development of Vocabulary

Similarly the student's experience with and use of the words and not his cramming up of the definitions of words leads to the development of his vocabulary. A learning experience that forms the background of a word adds the word to his working vocabulary. Words similar or related to the words should be then introduced. Thus the students who understand Hamlet's feelings over the death of his father should be introduced to the words that describe the experience. In other words the reading of this experience would make meaningful for them such words as stale, unweeded, heaven, frailty, discourse, dexterity, and incestuous, while a drill or exclusive learning of these words, unrelated to the context, would not be so fruitful.

Composition-writing warrants that there should be something to write about. Teacher should provide some first-hand experiences both rich and varied and clarify the students' needs before asking them to spin out a composition. Again, a good composition depends upon the quality of imitation, which the teacher can further and stimulate by citing good examples and encouraging wider reading.

Improvement in reading is a logical outcome of the will to improve. The teacher should, therefore, impress upon the importance of reading and provide continued instruction in reading.

Motivation and conditioning very much facilitate language development. Meaningful repetition, gratification of individual needs and managing successful performance would hence be the suitable teaching devices.

Distrust and hatred amongst people are generated by a 'misty' communication, 'iron-curtains', 'jamming' broadcasts and the like. Language teaching furthers international understanding.

Specific Aims

In order to let it serve us in all areas of education so as to make us competent and efficient in home life, personal growth, civic responsibility, vocational field and the like, some basic understandings must be taught to all students. This will be done if we as teachers keep before us a few specific, and yet vital, aims of teaching a language. Teachers from their experience in schools can then think of such learning experiences as would, when given to students, help them in achieving those aims.

To enable a person to establish his main contact with others is a grand of teaching languages. A learning experience to realize this aim may be to make students write out a dialogue or conversation round an argument with another person followed by a close analysis of the script to see how the improper choice or use of words or misunderstanding of the language lead to trouble. What were the words or phrases which were vague or had emotional tinge responsible for clouding the issue and confusing the participants, and how, alternative, but more appropriate, words or phrases would lead to interesting and a befitting conversation. Mock parliaments, discussion groups, one-act plays, and other class situations which train the students in dealing with social phenomena gracefully with the help of the language are some other means to achieve the same aim. Let students indulge in the usual activities which involve the use of language—post-dinner talks, debates, involving clash of opinion etc.—let them know how incorrect use of language confounds the forum and let them evolve a way of verbal or written expression of the day-to-day activities. A few years of this practical and motivated experience in the use of language are bound to make the student imbibe some of the semantics of language.

To develop the students' ability to use language for the purposes of discerning and interpreting their personal problems and their interrelationships is another aim of teaching languages. When a student describes an experience in writing or things through the feelings accompanying the experience he gets a real understanding of it.

Encourage a boy to pen down a few lines on a hockey match, on air-travelling or an excursion; he will come out with the value he derived from that particular experience. Ask him to build up a short story of his personal problems; he will project his problems in his account which will help him to understand his problems more clearly.

To enable the students to learn the language skills which are essentially required to satisfy their personal and social needs is the third aim that must be looked into by the language teachers. We get the students to write an essay, to correct the given wrong sentences, to change the voice from active to passive or to speak formally for five minutes. Have we ever thought that such activities are rarely called for amongst people's normal activities which involve the use of language? How many times, if ever, do we in adulthood need to write an essay or to make a formal speech? Let us, therefore, think of those language activities which would make students more competent, and efficient in their day-to-day lines. Conversation is a very important oral skill which all of us need on frequent occasions. Teachers can help students considerably in learning this skill. They can advise the latter to study literary conversation and grasp the points which make it interesting. Children's literature and some fiction would also be useful in learning the art of conversation. Students may be asked to read a playlet, a film-story or the details of an historical event and prepare a talk about it before the class. Writing letters and brief reports on wide and varied issues is another skill worthy of our attention. Encourage the students to write letters (to their parents), and reports (to be read before the class) on their achievement in some field, seeking or giving information on a subject, event or a device, and narrating the proceedings of a debate, or giving an account of an educational tour. The ability to discuss issues is also an essential skill especially in a democratic social order where public opinion and mutual exchange of thoughts, feelings and actions are paramount. This can be encouraged by providing the child opportunities to criticize issues and matters pertaining to his field of interest, to listen

to or sustain others' points of view with patience and sobriety, to take up the job of preparing his points of discussion and to be able to change his viewpoint when convinced. To speak is another important need training for which must in no case be ignored by the language teacher. Discussing literary characters, principles of grammar and essay-topics would train the child to speak as well as understand and appreciate literature. To collect information from wide and varied sources is another skill. This may be developed by asking the child to consult library books to find an answer to a question, to compile material for an assignment, to meet old students to find out the traditions and activities of the school. Similarly training in collective discussion can be provided by organising activities club, hobbies clubs etc. where pupils can discuss their new ventures, interesting experiences and new books or pictures.

To enable the students to understand the value of the present-day passive agencies of education like the radio and movies is another aim worthy of achievement. It is essentially the language teacher's task to help the student make an intelligent and productive use of the information given out by such agencies.

To develop in the student (i) a will or attitude for independent study of literature, (ii) an ability to appreciate, compare and contrast good literature especially poetry, (iii) precision and fluency in the use of words and phrases, (iv) an insight into the work outside, (v) an ability to consult reference books etc. etc. may be some other aims of teaching languages. Teachers from their own experience can as well think of a multitude of learning experiences which will aid them in the achievement of these aims.

The thoughts and finds of past generations merge into those of the present ones, the experiences of one nation are shared by the other nations at one time, views of great men are given practical shape—all through the use of language. Human personality itself depends a good deal on language development. Perhaps it would not have unfolded itself had there been no language to work through. From the 'birth cry' to his mortal finale man's activity of 'vocalization' remains supreme and all-powerful. From almost unintelligible baby prattle when he babbles in comprehensible jargon, he advances towards a high level of lucid, precise, forceful and effective exposition. This thorny process can be softened and eased by instruction in language.

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SOCIAL EDUCATION FOR WOMEN

HOW MUCH CAN EDUCATION ACCOMPLISH? Will families and communities improve their living if the way to do so is made clear? Is it possible to bring progress towards better living by merely improving the economic conditions of people?

Such questions led the educators and thinkers to seek a way through which progress in all fields of life may be coordinated. The only way to achieve this they found was by making education contribute to the goal of better living for all the people. In most cases all progress would be superficial if the educational approach is absent. Education has always proved to be a very important social instrument. It requires deliberate planning.

The activities of Social Education have broadly been classified into (a) Imparting knowledge (b) Education in community organisation (c) Recreational and cultural activities and (d) special activities for the betterment of women, children and backward classes.

Educating Women and Children

Activities for women and children form an integral part of Social Education. Owing to lack of facilities and dearth of knowledge about simpler working methods, many aspects of home life are proving to be very laborious and cumbersome. Then there is the problem of illiteracy and ignorance among our women folk.

Habits, customs and precedents play an important role in our lives. Hide-bound tradition, in matters of daily life when they have ceased to have any relevancy in modern conditions, still holds the field. *Pardah*, illiteracy, and ignorance about pre-natal, natal and post-natal care and child development persist as a result.

Sometimes there may be economic obstacles which may hinder wise use or adoption of a new technique. Some of the improved devices like ball-bearing *chakki*,

steam-cookers, water heaters, smokeless *chuhlas* and improved spinning wheel are only made use of by people who are well-off. The lowest income groups still go without these facilities as they sometime find that they cannot afford to acquire new habits or follow new methods for lack of economic resources.

Technical Know-how

There are also a number of instances where more technical knowledge is required. In many areas quantities of foodgrains are laid to waste by pests and insects. Technical knowledge about storage and allied methods has to reach every household.

As there is scarcity of improved techniques suited to village homes there is need for more research. There are various aspects of home-life which require to be improved; for example, investigations on the most suitable method of cooking and preservation of food, on clothing, housing, child-care, cottage industries etc., are called for. How to live within the means and strive to increase the amenities of life, how to conserve food values and decrease malnutrition, how to appreciate art and develop self-expression without causing a drain on one's purse and how to adjust to modern conditions in a fast changing world without losing the best in our ancient culture are a few examples among the numerous problems to be studied.

The Worker

The worker must be very sure of the objectives and the programme must be planned very systematically, keeping in view the needs and interests of people, their resources and the technical help available.

Much depends upon the worker who makes his approach to the people. Unfortunately till now a great deal of difficulty has been experienced in finding the right type of women workers. In the first place we have not been able to attract workers with a local background and the people who are imported from outside are not easily able to grasp the realities of local

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problems. Some States are doing well with the appointment of local women. A short term training is given to these women. They are also paid some honorarium for their services.

Much, however, has been attempted in the field of Social Education which has only shown how much more requires our

attention. We would be on the right track if we first made our people in the villages aware of the need for the wholesome reform which an effective Social Education programme would bring about. The way for popularising the techniques of improvement through the instrument of social instruction would then be paved.

THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY—Back Numbers

During the last two years *The Education Quarterly* has discussed the following themes :

Year	Issue	Theme
1958	June	Examination Reform
	September	Language Teaching
	December	Child Education
1959	March	Teacher Training
	June	General Education
	September	Reform of Primary Education
	December	Reform of Secondary Education
1960	Spring	Constitutional Obligations in Education
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education in the states—rajasthan

With this issue of *THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY* we are starting a new feature "Education in the States" that would give a detailed account of some specific experiments and special programmes undertaken by our State Governments in the field of education. While our feature "Education Today" will continue to report news about educational activities in the States, this feature is aimed at giving fuller reports about these activities in the form of feature articles covering one or more specific experiments or programmes in the State.

We begin with an account of two such experiments conducted by the Rajasthan Government viz. the Pilot Project Scheme introduced in 1958-59 and the Democratic Decentralisation of Primary Education recently effected in the State.

—EDITOR

Pilot-Project Scheme

WITH THE ACHIEVEMENT OF INDEPENDENCE and preparation of First and Second Plans for the development of the country, expansion in the field of education has been rapid. This has created some attendant problems. The existing schools are experiencing increased enrolment on the one hand and scanty equipment on the other. As grants have to be given on a wider scale than before, no fresh grants are possible in the case of existing schools. In the interests of education it is considered essential that we give proper attention to such schools and so formulate a plan that all such old schools are well furnished and well looked after by the Heads of Institutions and inspecting officers. With this view a scheme has been worked out for the establishment of a kind of Pilot schools. Each year it is proposed to take up one High School, one girls High School (in each division), 4 primary schools and 2 middle schools in every educational district. These schools will be selected by the Inspectors of Schools or Assistant Director of Education (Women) in consultation with the Head Masters/Head Mistresses subject to the final approval of the Deputy Director. The final selection of Primary and Middle Schools will be made by the Inspector of Schools or the Assistant Director of Women's Education if the institutions are for girls only. The whole idea of establishing such schools is to give concentrated attention to these schools in respect of the fulfilment of the ordinary basic conditions which are considered to be most essential in a normal

ordinary type of school. The main aim should be to raise the standard of teaching and to organise co-curricular activities, physical, cultural, literary and such other activities as are vital for the all round development and growth of students. These schools will serve as Pilot schools and to start with, schools at the district headquarters, sub-divisional headquarters and *tehsil* headquarters should be selected as far as possible. It will be the duty of the Inspector, Deputy Inspector and sub-Deputy Inspector of Schools, as the case may be, to inspect such pilot schools at least twice in a year particularly with a view to raising the standard of teaching. The Inspecting Officer will play the role of a disseminator of views and suggestions rather than that of a critic. No doubt, inspections will be thorough and not hurried and scrappy. Their full, frank and free discussions with the teachers will contribute towards the healthy development of Model Schools. The main aim should be to remedy defects and not to detect weakness.

The next inspecting officer i.e. Inspector in case of Middle Schools, Deputy Inspector or Dy. Inspectress in the case of Primary schools and Deputy Director in the case of High or Higher Secondary Schools and Assistant Director of Education (Women) in the case of girls High or Higher Secondary Schools shall inspect such schools at least once a year in detail and these officers will closely watch the progress of these schools. Copies of all detailed inspection reports should invariably be sent to the Director

of Education/Deputy Director of Education by name.

The Head Master/Head Mistress will send a quarterly progress report about the institution to his or her immediate officer with a copy to the Deputy Inspector, Inspector and Deputy Director by name. The Deputy Director of the Division will send consolidated reports about his division in the months of December and June every year to the Director by name.

A phased programme for improving and consolidating all the schools will be prepared. However, as an experimental measure for each High School, Rs. 4,000 in the first year, Rs. 3,000 in the second year, Rs. 2,000 in the third year and Rs. 1,000 in the fourth year are being allotted for equipment. Similarly for Middle Schools a grant of Rs. 1,000 for equipment is spread over 3 years—first year Rs. 500, second year Rs. 300 and third year Rs. 200. In the case of primary schools the total amount of Rs. 500 for the purchase of equipment, furniture and teaching appliances are being allotted, the distribution being Rs. 250 in the first year, Rs. 150 in the second year and Rs. 100 in the third year. Besides, every effort should be made by the Head Masters and the Inspecting Officers to enthrone local co-operation in the development of the school. People who can afford to donate should be approached for the donation of furniture, equipment, etc. Besides, a number of such other grants such as Library, Science equipment, etc., which are allotted, separately should be utilised for these schools, if they are not very urgently required for other schools. The whole idea is to make concentrated efforts for the development of such schools.

Individual attention should be paid to wards each student and cumulative record should be maintained about individual students on the lines adopted by Higher Secondary Multipurpose Schools. Every effort should be made to introduce the tutorial system in the school. But in case the number of the teachers and the students does not permit the introduction of this system in all the classes, at least an effort should be made to introduce this system in

all the classes, and in the highest class of the school and even if it is not possible then at least tutorial classes should be arranged in that subject in which students are generally deficient.

It is expected that examination results in such a school will at least be 90%, 80% and 75 % in primary, middle and high or Higher Secondary classes respectively.

The proforma for submission of first report which is a sort of survey report in respect of all the schools to be taken up as Pilot schools is sent to the Head of the institution who should fill up the proforma and send it to his immediate officer in duplicate. In the case of High and Higher Secondary schools one copy of the same should be sent to the Director of Education directly. This proforma will give in brief an idea as to what is expected of the Pilot school.

The whole idea of the scheme in brief, is to give pointed and concentrated attention to the all round development of the school by pooling of resources. As a matter of fact to use the word 'model' is a misnomer, particularly in the context of the paucity of facilities. But let us at least have the satisfaction of making sincere efforts to fulfil the barest needs of the institution and thus taking a step in the right direction.

In order to assess the progress of these institutions placed under Pilot scheme, a team of three persons goes round in each of the divisions and they select one among all the other High schools as the best one. Another team at the State level goes round and select the best one among the five high schools selected by the divisional teams. The Chief Minister of the State has been pleased to award a Shield to the best institution thus declared. This has resulted in building up a very healthy competitive spirit among the various institutions. It is contemplated that from 1960-61 this scheme may be extended to Multipurpose and Higher Secondary Schools also.

Democratic Decentralisation

The community development is the method which seeks to initiate the process of transformation of the social and economic life of the people so that the development of

the area has to be taken up through people's own democratic and co-operative organisations. The Government has to offer help only in regard to technical advice and to some extent helps in the supply of credit. To give effect to this objective, Balwant Rai Metha Committee strongly urged the acceptance of the principle of giving responsibility of development to representatives of the people within a limited sphere in a district and recommended introduction of democratic structure of administration above the village level. Naturally the Government should divest itself of certain duties and responsibility and devolve them on a body which will have the charge of all development work within its jurisdiction. Hence the idea of creating a democratic institution which will look to the local interest and conform to the needs and wishes of the locality. The function of such a body should include the entire general administration and development of the area other than such functions as law and order, administration of justice and certain other functions pertaining to revenue administration.

After examining the existing functions of the *Panchayats*, District Boards and Block Advisory Committees, it was decided that all these bodies should be replaced by a single representative and vigorous democratic institutions to take charge of all aspects of development work in the rural areas. This body should be statutory, elective, comprehensive in its duties and functions, equipped with necessary executive machinery and in a position of adequate resources. It must not be crammed of too much control by the Government or Government agency. (It must have the power to make mistakes and to learn by making errors).

The Government of Rajasthan accepting these points in principle decided that decentralisation be effected at block level. It resulted in abolition of block development committee constitution of *Panchayat Samities* at the block level irrespective of the consideration whether the area is covered by community development programme or not. The areas not covered by blocks were notified as shadow-blocks. It further resulted in the

abolition of District Boards and constitution of *Zila Parishads* at the district level.

Necessary legislation to give effect to the decision was introduced in the State Assembly and the *Panchayat Samities* and *Zila Parishad* Act, 1959 came into being. On 2nd October, 1959 the scheme of democratic decentralisation was introduced in a formal way and was inaugurated by the Prime Minister of India at Nagaur in Jodhpur Division of Rajasthan.

The services provided by the *Panchayat Samities* concern almost every aspect of life of the area and cover a wide range of activity. Special attention being devoted to execution of all programmes and development of such as Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Co-operation, Industry, Public Health and Sanitation, Medical Relief, Primary Schools and adult centres, supply of drinking water and welfare of backward classes, etc.

With the transfer of functions formerly discharged by Government Department, these *Samities* and *Panchayats* were provided with such funds from Government revenue which enable them to carry out these obligations. Besides, the *Panchayat Samities* have been allotted a certain percentage of land revenue and other taxes and also invested with power to levy taxes, to augment its resources for undertaking development activities.

The *Panchayat Samities* consist of the *Sarpanches* of the village *Panchayats* in the area. Its representatives of special interest like scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, women, etc., are taken by co-option and nomination. The *Samities* carry on their day-to-day work by means of Standing Committees constituted for different purposes. The Block Development Officers in block areas and *Tehsildars* in Shadow-blocks work as Chief Executive Officers and are called *Vikas Adhikaries*. These officers are responsible for implementing the resolutions of the *Panchayat Samities* and their Standing Committees along with the team of Extension Officers deputed by various departments. The Technical control over the subject matter remains with the officers of the respective technical departments.

The *Zila Parishads* are constituted at the district level and consist of all the *Pradhans* (Chairmen) of the *Samities* in the district, M.P.s, M.L.A.s, of the area, the Collector and such other district level officers as are nominated by the Government. This body remains mainly a supervisory and co-ordinating agency and has, therefore, limited functions.

From the education sector the following items were made over to the *Panchayat Samities*:—

1. Primary Schools including schools run for scheduled castes and Scheduled Tribes by the Social Welfare Department.
2. Conversion of Primary Schools into the Basic Pattern.
3. Scholarships and stipend; to members of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward classes.
4. Establishment of information, community and recreation centres.
5. Establishment of Youth organisations.
6. Establishment of rural libraries.
7. Adult Centres.

The Government handed over 11,018 primary schools (10,604 for boys and 414 for girls) to *Panchayat Samities* which are 232 in number. 237 S.D.I.s were given so that their number may be co-terminus with the *Panchayat Samities* plus 5 more in big *Panchayat Samities*. 232 Clerks and 232 Class IV servants were also given, at the rate of two each to the *Panchayat Samities*. The total number of teachers transferred to *Panchayat Samities* on 2nd October, 1959 was 16,643 of whom 15,965 work in boys schools and 678 in girls schools.

No middle and High Schools were given to the *Panchayat Samities* and as a result

of this decision 21 middle and 2 Higher Secondary Schools belonging to the District Boards were taken over by the Department.

The Department made over the entire budget for the schools (Plan and Non-Plan) that were transferred to the *Panchayat Samities*. This amount will form the grant-in-aid in perpetuity in the future. It was decided that new schools would be opened according to the Survey Report of 1957 and in 1960-61 1,600 schools will be given to *Panchayat Samities* for opening on cent per cent basis and 205 schools were allotted on 70% grant-in-aid basis so that well-to-do *Panchayat Samities* might get the chance of opening additional schools and reduce the high percentage of illiteracy in the areas.

It was declared that the teachers and other staff transferred to *Panchayat Samities* would have the option of retaining their services in the *Panchayat Samities* or with the department provided they declared their option within 90 days of the enactment of the Act.

As the traditions are being built up, the Inspecting staff has more time, as a result of Democratic Decentralisation to supervise the working and the academic standards of Primary schools intensively. The greatest benefit of the scheme is that more public co-operation is forthcoming in the form of building and material for equipment. The *Panches* and *Sarpanches* have begun to realise their responsibility towards eradicating the evils of illiteracy among the masses, and great awakening is gradually spread over the four corners of the State that Rajasthan has to make long strides towards Universal, Free and Compulsory education. Greater opportunities are available to the villagers who have been afforded the chance of making their own schemes of community development.

Rajasthan has thus launched upon a new experiment of the *Panchayat Raj* and the work has been started in the right spirit.

DOCUMENTARY IN SOCIAL EDUCATION

SOCIAL EDUCATION IN INDIA bears family resemblance to what is known in different countries as Adult Education, Basic Education, Civic Education, Community Education, and also Fundamental Education, the name coined by Unesco.

Unfortunately even workers in the field of Social Education sometimes fail to recognize the true meaning of Social Education. To some it means nothing more than literacy classes, while to others it means a series of talks to a hybrid audiences on *Panchayat Raj*, Cooperative Farming and Malaria with some entertainment and dramatic stuff thrown in to provide some thrill. Of one thing they are, however, sure. Somehow or other Social Education is bound up with the over-all Community Development Programme of the nation. Indeed some think that it is destined to play in this programme the most vital role.

The term *Community Development* has come into international usage to connote the processes by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of the governmental authorities in the improvement of the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, the integration of the communities into the life of the nation, so as to enable them to contribute fully to national progress. Thus understood, Community Development touches at all points of community living; it requires the help of various technical services; education, vocational guidance, cooperatives, handicrafts, and small industries, social welfare services, housing, building, planning and health services. Social Education then is one of the technical services of Community Development. It has a more intimate connection with human life than the other aspects of a community development programme, such as agriculture or handicrafts. Again, the most important contribution of a social education worker lies in more subtle spheres: making happier, wiser men better citizens, and so on. These obviously are not

achieved overnight. They call for sustained, long-term effort.

Documentary Can Do It

But, a start should be made forthwith; we cannot wait till all men and women have been made literate and can read and think for themselves. As a Persian adage goes: 'Before the healing balm could be brought from Iraq the snake-bitten would be dead'. An early ready remedy is required. And here is where the newest mass-communication media come to the rescue. For they overcome the barriers of literacy and language and talk straight to the hearts and heads of men through their eyes and ears. And of all these audio-visual aids, the film is undoubtedly the most competent and the most versatile aid. The film alone can bring the alien and the unknown world to the audiences at the street corner with all its immediacy and reality; can bring your city's housing problem to you with dramatic meaningfulness; can catch the labyrinth of life as it really exists; and can reconstruct the drama of ordinary every day life. The type of film that has been employed in the service of social education is called the documentary as distinct from the feature or the story film. Most social education workers have some familiarity with the documentary through the 11-minutes documentaries turned out by the Films Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India. What is a documentary? Briefly, the documentary is a factual film born not in a studio but in a rice field or the coal mine, or the foundry shop, or the farm or the forest, or the hospital where it goes to catch on celluloid real people in real life situations and in their habitat. Like the feature film the documentary has a story to tell but it is not the boy-meet-a-girl theme with a villain thrown in; there are no winsome women making middle-aged athletic heroes fall madly in love with them. Its story is Social with a capital 'S', depicting the adventures of the common man in the Society, of the ordinary housewife; the chivalry of modest lives; the great drama of living together in a community.

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The documentary uses what they call documentary material but it is not a chain of events that would make a newsreel. It selects, it arranges, and it interprets and that calls for art and creativity. Documentary is, as Grierson puts it, the 'creative treatment of actuality'. It interprets creatively and in *social terms* the life of the people as it exists in reality. This also emphasises its social role. For making a documentary we need real artists. A documentary maker may not necessarily be a very good technician but he has to be a very great artist, a thorough philosopher and a competent sociologist and by implication a good politician. All political parties today must have a social and economic programme and since the documentary is the film of social analysis it is political too.

Art and Propaganda

The question can be asked: Can Art and Propaganda go well together? This has somehow been the perennial question of aesthetics. An answer to this question is, fortunately, in the affirmative. Yes, Art and Propaganda can go together, have gone well together in documentary. And this can be said on the authority of John Grierson, Paul Rotha and Basil Wright who have spent their life-time making documentaries for governments and Industry, who gave birth to documentary, made it grow and sent it out on its errands. Yet a documentarist is not a propagandist in the sinister sense of the word. No doubt the making of a documentary involves 'Interpretation' which means seeing from a certain angle but a good documentary never tends to give solutions though sensitive minds may see the solution coming out of it. Documentary presents a problem before the audiences with overwhelming effectiveness so that they are seized of the problem and then it stops. The documentary exposes, exposes mercilessly, but it does not prejudice. To the physical eye it gives the mind's eye but it does not whisper sedition in the ears. It wakes the heart and the will, and leaves it to the political parties to make their own case for leadership. The documentary avoids slogans. It would bring to your gaze slums, bad hospitals, mis-managed schools

and if that makes a political party loose in a by-election so much the better. And after all 'illumination and constructive propaganda, are not very different and documentary presents the constructive part of the criticism of our politics and society.

Social Genesis

It is often forgotten that the film medium at its very first beginnings was utilised for science and study after the initial period of wonder and curiosity was over and that its use as a medium of mass-entertainment came much later. In the birth of the documentary movement the film medium assumed its earlier role of being man's teacher instead of being his buffoon. It was the first conscious and real attempt to use cinema for purposes more important than mere entertainment. The fact that the documentary film has a social genesis and that it was born out of the womb of the forces which worked to make democracy real is a very significant detail which should never be lost sight of. The documentary is the 'most interesting emanation of social democratic growth over a generation.' The documentary idea was not born as a film idea at all. That it took to the film medium is incidental. The documentary idea was born not in a studio but in a University: the University of Chicago, U.S.A., where Lippmann expounded his new concept of education for a newer order.

The documentary today plays a very vital social and educational role in all advanced countries of the world. In the U.K. the country of the Messiahs of the documentary the Medium has played a significant part and comparative neglect in documentary production in recent years has been mourned as being symptomatic of the sickness of the democratic institutions. So in Europe, America, and the U.S.S.R. the documentary is playing a vital role. In Canada the documentary provides a supplementary system of national education. This is also what should happen in India.

Documentary in India

The documentary in India had an unnatural birth. In the early stages of the Second World War an organization by the

name of the Information Films of India was established by the British Government to assist the war effort by strengthening war propaganda. Most of the IFI films were made with that end in view but there was later a shift of emphasis and documentaries such as *Our Heritage* (1943), and *The Tree of Wealth* (1944) came to be made. These documentaries attempted to acquaint Indians with India and to enable them to inherit Indian traditions and culture and yet they had a war-time bias. The IFI outlived its purpose at the end of hostilities and in 1946 the IFI units were disbanded.

The documentary had, however, come to stay. The new democratic government understood the needs of the country and the potentialities of the film medium and the present Documentary Films of India was established after an interregnum of a year. The new Documentary Films of India sought to bring to the people the policies and plans of this new democratic Republic. It was not mere propaganda but sought to encompass a larger interest, that of interpreting India—past, present and future, to the Indian peoples and to the World outside. The Films Division as this organization is called today produces more than 36 documentaries in a year (in addition to a large number of news-reels) on various subjects of national and international interests and if the various awards won by the Indian documentaries at international festivals are any indication, at its very best, the Indian documentary is capable of achieving excellence.

There has been some legitimate criticism of the Films Division documentaries. Since they are for the unsophisticated rural masses, most of the documentaries use a simple style, too simple sometimes, and the story technique has been used *ad nauseum*. As the Report of the Film Enquiry Committee (1951) puts it "the standard and quality (of Film Division documentaries) require considerable improvement" and they are, at times, "too timid to force the obvious conclusion." Also because they are primarily made to let the public see the various activities and policies of the government departments they "seem to be designed from the point of view of educating the citizen rather than the man." To the extent that

this is true our documentaries fail in their social education role.

Yet the record of the Films Division is no doubt impressive both by virtue of the quality of production and the number of releases in a year. The latest descriptive catalogue of the Films Division lists more than 320 documentaries which is a sufficient number for a social education worker to select from.

The following titles picked at random should give an indication of the variety of topics: *Cooperative Farming, Winged Scourge, Our Cattle Wealth, In Defence of Freedom, Folk Dances of India, Spirit of the Loom, Schooling a Sub-Continent, Light in the Darkness, Milk for the Millions, Mission of Peace, Feminine Fashions, New Lands for Old, Our Constitution, Portrait of a Policeman, The Marked Man, Women in White, Family Planning, Important People, Search for Shelter, Himalayan Holiday, Land of the Brahmaputra, Lacs from Lac, Taming the Sutra, Highways of the Sky, Our Flag, Maps we Live By, Tomorrow is Ours, India and the United Nations, Money and Banking, Romance of Reading, Khajuraho, Unesco, Deserted Woman*, etc. They cover a formidable list of subjects: agriculture, farming, forestry, armed forces, art and culture, cottage industries, handicrafts, education, food and diet, international relations, science, and engineering technology, government and citizenship, health and hygiene, medicine, housing, industry and labour, Five-Year Plans, recreation, rehabilitation, communication, transport, persons, events, sports, games and festivals.

This is a happy situation and fortunately a social education worker in India does not have to start from scratch. Much has been done already but that is not enough. A lot yet demands to be done both in the direction of non-governmental sponsorship of the documentary and in building up wider non-theatrical audiences for the documentary films already being produced by the Films Division.

Documentary and Educationist

The more important thing to do, however, is the adoption of the documentary by the educationist, and especially the social educationist. It must be understood that

the documentary in the end, will have to be, if not wholly, primarily the concern of the educationist. The social education worker should, therefore, play his role in the production of documentary and in the proper utilisation of what film material is already available. This again, presents many difficulties, for instance, the Social Education Workers have to be trained in the use of the documentary which does not mean only projection and screening but use to promote discussion groups in communities and to motivate community action; supply of projection equipment to non-technical groups which in turn is linked up with the question of import and foreign exchange; building up larger and wide-spread channels of distribution, etc.

It will not be out of place here to quote a relevant extract from the Report of the Film Enquiry Committee (1951; para 642) :

'In the field of adult education through the film, we feel that the ground covered by the use of mobile vans cannot be extensive and we, therefore, recommend the establishment of open air theatres in rural areas. These should be put up by local authorities to suit the climatic conditions of the place and should be made available for free cinema shows where instructional and information short films are screened for the benefit of

the public. The same theatres could be used for the encouragement of local talents in music, dancing and acting'.

It would be well to remember that where-as there are more than 3 million seats inside cinema halls in India there are a hundred times more outside the theatres, in schools, colleges, libraries, factories, offices, camps, clubs, festivals, village community halls. To all these places the documentary can go and meet the people in the service of social education.

It never is a problem, bringing people together to see documentaries. The film has a fascination for everyone and the factual film, experience everywhere has shown, is not a bit less fascinating. People have been found to be interested in documentaries which have sometimes attracted more attention than the story film ? It has also been *often* seen more than once.

The documentary has never failed and wherever it has gone it has attracted people, has held them in thrill, nailed to their seats, has influenced their heads and hearts. Herein lies a great chance and a great challenge. Surely the newer social order that social education workers are striving to bring about in India will be greatly indebted to the documentary and the documentary maker.

Important Announcement

The concessional rate of Re. 1.00 per copy of THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY has been extended for Secondary Schools for the financial year 1960-61 i.e. up to the Spring 1961 issue of the journal.

PLACE OF LIBRARY IN A MODERN SCHOOL

AS THE FAMOUS MAXIM GOES—"A true University of these days is a collection of books," library forms the heart of the school. It is a place where those, eager to learn, dig deep into the inexhaustible mines of knowledge. It is the fountain of inspiration and a source of perpetual self-education. It is a place where the wisdom of ages is accumulated and the culture of the world is contained. In the progressive world of today no school is worth the name without a well organized and well equipped library.

'Library' literally means a store-house or collection of books kept in charge of a clerk or any senior teacher of a high school staff. Here its aim is either to supply reference books to the teachers to help and guide them in their teaching or to provide juvenile books of recreation and entertainment to the students. But the significance of the term 'library' is greatly changed in modern times. Today it is something more than a mere collection of books. It is a means of real education to the children in schools. By cultivating the habits of reading books in a well equipped library, the children can be made to increase their knowledge and can be educated in the real sense of the term.

Till now importance was given solely to the reading of text books. This enabled the child to pass examinations. But, it did not have any bearing on the development of the child's mind and personality. In fact the desire and the habit of general reading should be promoted among the students so that even after leaving the school, they may continue to keep contact with libraries and continue to gain knowledge. This is possible only if good books are readily made available. Library today is also regarded as one of the instruments of making learning more effective. Modern progressive methods of teaching can only be implemented with the help of good libraries. The Secondary Education Commission has accordingly made recommendations for the establishment and organization of the most effective library service in every secondary school

in India. It clearly mentioned—"Proper use of a well-equipped school library is absolutely essential for the efficient working of every educational institution and for encouraging literary and cultural interests in students, even class libraries and subject libraries should be encouraged". It also recommended that trained librarians, who have love of books and understanding of student's interests, should be provided in all secondary schools. Teachers should be given some training of library work through Training Colleges or Refresher Courses held from time to time. School libraries may, at times, in case of necessity be converted into public libraries so that people at large may take advantage of them. Where there are public libraries, different sections may be allotted to children and adolescents. On the basis of the above recommendations a detailed scheme of the organization and working of libraries has been framed and is sought to be brought into practice in our modern schools.

Importance of Libraries

As is said, "Reading maketh a full man", the importance of books is quite evident. Not only are they the vital sources of acquiring knowledge, but they also act as great friends and companions in times of need. As the great poet Southey has said "My never failing friends are they, with whom I converse day by day". We get pleasure, peace, consolation, strength, courage, ready advice and knowledge from books. Great mines may exhaust, cities may perish and kingdoms may be swept away—even man may weep at his mortal destruction—but the eternal body of thought that lies hidden in the shape of a book will exist for all time. Good books to the young mind are like the warm sun and the refreshing rains to the seeds.

As our aim today is not only to educate the child formally, but also to make him useful and good citizen of the state, libraries are essential. They will improve his mental faculties, inspire his spiritual qualities and thus build and develop the whole personality of the child.

S. Roy, M.A., *Social Worker*, Raipur,
(Madhya Pradesh)

Now we come to a 'modern school'. In the good old days the concept of school was quite different from what it is today. At that time instruction was imparted orally and knowledge passed from one generation to another through oral transmission and memorising. There was no need for books. Of course there were great volumes on all branches of knowledge but they were manuscripts and were limited in number. In spite of this, our *Gurus* of old days, proficient as they were, were successfully able to impart instruction to pupils. Also there was very close contact between the teacher and the taught, making the process of education more easy and effective.

With the increase in the number of students, the establishment of schools and the diversification of knowledge, the necessity of books has increased. As a result of these changes, methods of teaching have also changed. The new set-up of education requires greater addition of books and libraries. Now the pupil's source of knowledge is not only the teacher's voice, as was in the case of mass teaching, but books on diversified subjects, giving him knowledge of the wide world and its gradual progress.

Thus the whole atmosphere and working of the modern school has changed. Here efforts are being made to make the child a self-educating unit. Libraries here give light and the pupils have to find out their own way on the path of knowledge. The teacher has to develop his habit of reading

and learning and after that his work remains only that of guiding and showing the way where required.

Modern methods of learning such as Project method, Dalton method, etc., require self-study on the part of students. A subject is allotted to students, work is divided among groups of students and after proper guidance they are left in a library or a laboratory to find their own way and get knowledge by themselves. Thus the library occupies an important place in a modern school. In fact a well organized and well equipped library is a pre-requisite for the successful working of a modern school.

Not only from the point of view of students but from the teacher's point of view also a library is indispensable. The teacher cannot be an all-knowing person. He has to continue to learn and study the changing trends of life and its problems and accordingly give instruction to his students. Today the territory of knowledge is widening and to keep pace with it, serious books and journals published in different parts of the world have come to be in great demand. The different branches of knowledge specially in science are making rapid progress in this atomic age. What else but a well stocked library can meet the need ?

The place of library in a modern school cannot thus be ignored. The aims of education, in the fast-moving world of the present day, cannot be realised without well set-up library organizations.

- Of all the inanimate objects, of all man's creations, books are the nearest to us, for they contain our very thoughts, our ambitions, our indignations, our illusions, our fidelity to truth, and our persistent leaning toward error. But most of all they resemble us in their precarious hold on life.

—Joseph Conrad



education today

About 340 lakhs children are expected to be enrolled in classes I to V of Primary schools in 1960-61 according to the latest figures supplied by various State Governments. The expected enrolment figure is 15 lakhs more than the proposals made in the Second Five-Year Plan for this period and also 13 lakhs more than revised estimate of the Planning Commission. The Working Group of Education had estimated that about 330 lakhs children would be enrolled.

The increase in enrolment owes a great deal to the good work done by backward States like Bihar, Orissa and Rajasthan in the form of enrolment drives. The Government of India have also contributed its share in the matter by increasing the total number of teachers sanctioned under the scheme of relief to educated unemployment from 60,000 to 70,000.

Special programmes such as fencing school compounds, plantation of green hedge, installation of weather-cocks, rain-gauges and construction of relief maps of India and Manipur in school compounds were undertaken in this Territory this year. In implementing the programmes a novel method has been started, according to which every employee of the Education Directorate and the Secretariat including, officers, clerks and peons, has been allotted two schools each. They are to look after the job of planting green hedge around the school compounds and the proper maintenance of the schools under their care. A great importance has been attached

to proper fencing of the compound as it will not only protect the fruit and flower plants from the depredations of cattle but will also lend an aesthetic touch to the institution.

* * *

The Punjab Government has decided to extend the concession of free education up to the 8th class in Government institutions all over the State. In 1957 education was made free up to the 5th class in all Government institutions and as most of the Primary institutions were maintained by the Government this concession benefited about 1,17,210 students. This was extended to the 6th Class in 1958 and to the 7th Class in 1959. As a result of this step the State Government will have to forgo a sum of Rs. 20.77 lakhs as revenue during 1960-61.

* * *

Education in the Union Territory of Manipur has been made free up to class VIII with effect from March, 1960. As a result of this nearly 6,000 students more will be benefited. Education had been made free up to class VI earlier.

* * *

A journal entitled "Teacher Education" in Manipur will be published regularly by the Basic Training Institute, Imphal. It will deal mainly with Basic education. The inaugural issue of the journal was brought out in January 1960.

* * *

The State Government deputed two officers of the Education Directorate to study the system of Compulsory Primary Education and Expansion of Teachers' Training Facilities in the Maharashtra and Madras States, in May this year. The aim of such deputation was to study how the States were tackling the administrative problems there and how best West Bengal could derive benefit out of their experiences.

Two Seminars—one for Science and the other for Geography—were organised in Manipur in June, 1960 in which 111 science teachers and 115 geography teachers participated. In these Seminars some research work was undertaken by the participants. Natural resources, agricultural products, mineral wealth etc., of the Territory were studied. Some survey work was done in some selected villages.

A new school building at Biglapati in Car Nicobar was inaugurated in March this year. One Primary school at Rampur in colonization area has also been started from 1st March, 1960. The Administration has purchased appliances worth Rs. 34,613 for different schools of the Islands.

English has been re-introduced on an optional basis in Standards V to VII of both Primary and Secondary schools in the old Bombay State area of Maharashtra depending on the local demand and the availability of teachers on the subject. The study of English was up to now compulsory in Standards VIII to X of Secondary schools, but with effect from June, 1960, it is made optional throughout the Secondary school stage i.e. Standards V to X, and also continues as an optional subject for the Secondary School Certificate Examination held after Standard XI.

A Centre for National Physical Efficiency Drive was opened at Port Blair and tests were held there in March, 1960. The numbers of persons who qualified themselves for One, Two and Three Stars were 113, 54 and 15 respectively.

The Assam Government conducted ACC Labour and Social Service Camps on a zonal basis during February-March, 1960. The Camps were held at Patbansi (Barpeta), Chabua (Dibrugarh), Sualkuchi (Gauhati), Gandhibori (Nowgong), Demow (Sibsagar) and Greentilla (Silchar). Social Service activities including construction of fair weather roads, digging of water tanks, demonstration of sanitation and hygiene etc., were undertaken during these Camps.

National Physical Efficiency Tests were organised at four different centres in which 1,339 people participated. The numbers of participants who won Three-Star, Two-Star, and One-Star marks were 138, 200 and 210 respectively.

Sports Festivals were held in eight districts in rural areas to popularise games and sports amongst the rural people. This was a Centrally sponsored scheme for which Rs. 13,500 were sanctioned.

Physical Efficiency Drive, another Centrally sponsored scheme, was organised in 40 Centres spread all over the State with great enthusiasm. An amount of Rs. 12,000 was sanctioned for it.

District Science Committees have been formed in 51 districts of Uttar Pradesh. Steps are now being taken to form them in the three newly organized hill districts of the State. Thus by December 1, 1960, agreed upon as the National Science Day by the All India

Council for Secondary Education, there will be as many as 54 Science Committees in the State.

The chief function of these Committees is to organize the State's Students' Scientific Research Competition which, originated in 1949 for yearly talent search in science, has become an annual feature since 1958. The Committees do the preliminary screening and select the students for preparing entries which are judged at the district and regional levels before they appear for final adjudication before the State's Judging Committee. The District Science Committees do the spade work to create a proper climate for developing interest in science.

The Committees have noted with interest the recommendations of the All India Council for Secondary Education to start science clubs in each school.

* * *

Kerala Government has created the post of a Joint Director of Public Instruction who will be in charge of the Administration work relating to the administration of the Education Directorate in Department and personnel management. This step will enable the Director to devote better attention to the technical aspect of the Directorate, namely, supervision over the content of education. So far the Director himself has been looking after office administration and personnel work.

* * *

The Government of Kerala has created a full time post of a Director of Collegiate Education in the place of a Deputy Director who was so far managing the work relating to this field of education. The Director will be responsible for the management of all Government colleges, including the University College, administration of Sanskrit colleges and music academies and of National Cadet Corps. The creation of the new post is intended to tone up the administration of collegiate education in the State.

* * *

West Bengal Government has accorded sanction to the opening of a Teachers' Training Department at the St. Xavier's College, Calcutta with arrangements for the training of 100 students from the ensuing academic session. A non-recurring sum of Rs. 2.87 lakhs for construction work has been granted for the purpose.

* * *

A new university, the University of Burdwan, was inaugurated in West Bengal on 15th June, 1960. Burdwan University Thirty-one colleges including one Teachers' Training College at Hooghly and one Regional Engineering College at Durgapur will be under the jurisdiction of this University. The University proposes to start post-graduate teaching of a few subjects under Humanities from the next academic session.

* * *

Educational administrators from all over the State met in a two-day conference at Lucknow to discuss important educational problems during the year in the implementation of various schemes and plans and to devise ways and means to enlist public co-operation for the construction of buildings and implementation of welfare schemes. Other subjects discussed included co-ordination of different departments to promote various aspects of education, developing wholesome relations with the private schools to bring about better condition of work, raising the standard of teaching in various subjects, increasing enrolment in schools, and execution of Five-Year Plan schemes.

* * *

Inaugurating the two-day Vice-Chancellors' Conference at Khadakvasala, Poona, Dr. K.L. Shrimali, Union Minister of Education, appealed to the universities to accept the challenge of our time and take bold steps to reorient the educational system which is at present subjected to strong criticism by the press and platform.

Vice-Chancellors' Conference

Speaking on one of the important items of the agenda of the Conference, namely, the report of the Deshmukh Committee on National Service for Students, Dr. Shrimali said that the Government had accepted its recommendations generally and that an Inter-Ministerial Working Group had been set up to work out the practical details of the scheme. He pointed out some criticism of the Scheme and added that the Government had no intention to hustle through the Scheme, nor had it any ulterior political considerations. The Scheme should be accepted or rejected on its merits; it must be justified on educational grounds and in the context of our national needs and requirements. The Minister said that the Government would be greatly benefited by the discussions of the Vice-Chancellors on this subject.

Dr. Shrimali next referred to the falling standards of education and student indiscipline which were attributed to the poor quality of teachers. The Minister deplored the practice of nepotism in appointing and promoting teachers in universities and added that in institutions where teachers were conscientious and dedicated to their work there would be no problem of discipline. The corporate life in the universities, Dr. Shrimali stated, could thrive only when students respected their teachers and the latter inspired confidence in them by setting high standards of integrity and character. The responsibility of the teachers was all the more greater at this stage when there was a general deterioration of moral standards in public life.

Dr. Shrimali also touched on the question of relationship between the Government and universities, about which there was some controversy recently, and said that if both respected each other and worked for a common purpose of service to society and advancement of human welfare there should be no occasion for conflict between the two.

The Minister also appealed to the members of the Conference to give serious thought to bring about mutual understanding between the universities and the University Grants Commission.

The Conference which concluded on June 16, 1960, made some recommendations on student indiscipline, religious and moral instruction and examination reform. On student indiscipline as it affected the University administration, the Conference recommended that a convention of political parties be called to agree on a concord that they will desist from interference in the affairs of the universities, directly or indirectly, in the interest of the future generations. The Conference also stressed the need for constant contact and association between the teachers on the one hand and the parents and guardians on the other.

The question of instruction in spiritual and moral values was also discussed by the Conference in the context of student indiscipline. It felt that instruction in spiritual and moral values should be introduced at all stages of education. The practicability of such education should be carefully examined before embarking on the project.

As a result of discussions on examinations, the Conference came to the following broad conclusions:—

- (1) Examination should be recognised as an important element in the teaching process.
- (2) There is need for continual investigation of the operation of the existing system of examinations in Indian universities.
- (3) The maintenance of cumulative records which involves a large number of teachers, and the communication of these records to the university will largely guard against abuses.
- (4) Each university should set up a special unit to study examination reform in the context of that university.
- (5) The University Grants Commission should take steps to plan and initiate reforms and to co-ordinate the work done in this field in the various universities.

* * *

THE FOREIGN SCENE

Children of the 6th grade class of Roger Sherman School, City of New Haven, Connecticut, under the supervision of their teacher Miss Anna R. Maskel, have drawn up "A Bill of Rights for Children the World Over" with the hope that "it would reach the lawmakers of the world and that they would act on it." The "Bill", which aims at global peace, represents the culmination of almost a whole year's study and intensive research by the children on the present-day world problems.

The "Bill" has been divided into three sections: Love, Health and Education. The first section underlines the importance of love for children regardless of creed, colour, sex, nationality or occupation of parents and the need for mutual respect and love on the part of teachers and children for a happy atmosphere in the class-room.

The second section states that children all over the world should have enough food, clothing, shelter and medical facilities and that in view of varying prosperities of nations the "have" nations should share their blessings more generously with the "have-not" nations.

The third section of the Bill points out the advantages of education for better life and emphasises the need for teaching every child how to read and write. Education will include both physical and mental development of the child. This section also advocates freedom of worship, respect for each other's beliefs and equality of rights because no one race is superior to another.

In conclusion, the adults and heads of governments are reminded of their responsibility for the safety of children. "Children never started wars. Adults did, but children suffer most from them."

A copy of the "Bill" was presented by the children to Shri Jawaharlal Nehru, Prime Minister of India, who sent a message of thanks to them.

* * *

The Unesco Executive Board, which has just completed its 56th session, made a long study of the state of education in Asia, the Arab States and tropical Africa.

Eager to make a useful contribution to education in these regions, Unesco first undertook surveys in order to define the nature and extent of present-day needs. Early in 1960, it called three important meetings at Karachi, Beirut and Addis Abeba to bring together those responsible for education in most of the countries of these regions. Today, precise data and figures are available to measure both the progress achieved in recent years and the efforts which must still be made.

In Arabic speaking countries, there are now nearly 5,000,000 children in Primary schools. However, the number of school-age children in these countries is estimated at nearly 15,000,000. Still, it should be noted that in 1950 there were only 2,500,000 children at school in these countries. In other words, their number has doubled within a decade. In the same way, Secondary school pupils who then amounted to a little more than 250,000 now number nearly 800,000.

Nevertheless, this progress is far from evenly spread over all countries and all levels. In general, Secondary and vocational education are not very well developed. For every 100 Primary school pupils, there is an average of 16 children in Secondary schools and only two in vocational schools. In addition, the education of girls continues to present a disturbing problem: in Primary schools, only three out of every ten pupils are girls.

As far as Asia is concerned, statistical studies covered the following countries: Afghanistan, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Iran, Korea, Laos, Malaya, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam.

It has been estimated that, 20 years from now, the population of these countries will reach the figure of 1,100,000,000. But

† From the material made available by Unesco Clearing House, Paris.

the rate of education must not remain stationary. The meeting called by Unesco at Karachi had the precise task of making a synthetic study of national plans designed to give reality to free and compulsory education in this immense region within 20 years. These mean that Primary school systems must be developed to the point where, in 1980, they will be able to absorb 220,000,000 pupils.

The plan calls for 35 pupils per teacher. It also foresees a substantial increase in teachers' salaries, now very insufficient, the construction of adequate school buildings, the manufacture of required school equipment, etc. Average expenditure per child which now amounts to \$6 should be increased regularly every five years until it reaches the sum of \$20, which represents only one quarter of corresponding expenses in Western countries.

In short, the plan calls for the enrolment of 156,000,000 children; the recruiting of 5,500,000 additional teachers; the building of 5,500,000 classrooms and 4,000,000 houses. The total cost of this programme is estimated at \$65,000,000,000—that is, about \$3,200,000,000 per year. The Karachi meeting also stressed that, under these conditions, expenditure for education per head of the population, which now amounts to \$3.50, would be raised to about \$5 in 1980—which represents less than a tenth of corresponding expenses in the West.

The situation is quite similar and, proportionately speaking, requires equally dynamic efforts in the countries of tropical Africa.

This stupendous job will fall upon the shoulders of the countries concerned. Each region plans to take concrete steps in this respect, first calling on national resources. The "20-year plan" presented by the Karachi Conference is one such plan. For tropical Africa, the Addis Abeba meeting stressed on the training of qualified teachers for Primary and Secondary schools. The representatives of Arab States who met at Beirut brought out the need for continuous planning of education in all its forms within the framework of planning for economic

and social development. They also took up problems of training teachers.

But it is quite clear that such plans will be unable to succeed quickly—that is, within the coming ten or twenty years—without effective, generous and well-directed international aids.

Unesco proposes to devote relatively large sums to this task which concerns the entire world. Next November, the General Conference will vote on projects in this field which will be presented to it. A budget of \$3,000,000—to be financed partially from Unesco's own budget and partially from technical assistance funds is foreseen in order to enable Unesco to meet the needs as far as possible.

* * *

Australian educators are seeking to find a reasonable balance between the right of Australian children to an understanding of their own cultural inheritance and their need for an understanding of neighbouring countries and peoples.

Asia in
Australian
Education

The main vehicle for teaching about Asian countries in Australian Primary schools is the Social Studies (or History and Geography) programme. These syllabuses, in their studies of other lands, pay a great deal of attention to the way in which various peoples live. The studies may centre around a landmark of significance such as the Great Wall of China, or a vital river such as the Ganges.

Another approach is to study the daily life of a worker in one of a country's major industries, say, the production of tea in Ceylon, rice in China, rubber in Malaya. In every State syllabus some mention is made of India and China.

Music and Art also provide scope for teaching about Asian countries. School magazines and other school reading material also have an Asian content.

In History courses, the earliest references to Asian countries are associated with early European acquaintance and trade with them. The Asian country most commonly studied on these lines is India.

Geography syllabuses frequently include regional studies of Asia. These studies include a wide range of topics connected with the interaction of the physical structure, climate and vegetation of a region with the population, distribution and composition, way of life, primary and secondary industries, trade, transport and government.

India and China are the countries most frequently studied in this way also, followed by Japan, Malaya and Indonesia.

At University level, courses with Asian reference are provided in various disciplines, mainly within Arts Faculties.

Quite a substantial amount of research in physical, biological and social sciences, being undertaken by university staffs of post-graduate students, also has some relation to Asia.

The main centre for undergraduate and graduate study of Asia is the School of Oriental Studies at Canberra University College. Courses in the Chinese, Japanese and Indonesian languages are provided, together with a three-year course in Oriental Civilisation.

Post-graduate Asian studies are undertaken in the Schools of Social Sciences and Pacific Studies at the Australian National University, with which the Canberra University College will shortly be associated.

Adult education courses dealing with Asia are also available to people in Australian cities and occasionally in country areas as well.

Asian languages are taught under Adult Education auspices in three cities: Chinese in Sydney, Japanese in Melbourne and Indonesian in Adelaide.

University extension courses also offer some scope for Asian studies. In particular, the Institute of Modern Languages, conducted by the University of Queensland, offers courses in Chinese, Japanese, Malay and Hindi.

* * *

Pakistan expects to spend twice as much money on public educational projects during its Second Five-Year Plan as it did during the First Plan. The increase is from 580 million rupees to 1,220 million rupees plus additional expenditures for training and research in agriculture, industry, health, housing etc. The expenditure is based on an exhaustive survey of educational needs conducted by a national commission of experts. The report was recently released to the public, with the Government's endorsement. The report underlines the importance of teachers in the educational system and states in unequivocal terms that the reforms proposed will not succeed unless men and women of the highest abilities are recruited to the teaching profession and are given that status in society which their national importance warrants. Some of the proposals included in the report for official action for the improvement of the material conditions of teachers and their status in society are: encouragement of strong professional organizations of teachers, publication of professional teachers' journals, annual awards for teachers, raising of salaries, provident funds and retirement benefit schemes. The report also states that though some steps can be taken by the Government, public respect for teaching is something which cannot be legislated into existence. It is something which the teacher must win for himself, with assistance of official action.

* * *

In addition to the regular summer school curriculum, Winnipeg School Board organized, as an experiment, merit courses for gifted pupils during the summer of 1959. Among the courses suggested for inclusion, chemistry laboratory, typing, and French conversation found the greatest favour among the pupils. Only those pupils with exceptional marks in the regular work of the school year were allowed to enrol in these three-week courses which were entirely voluntary and for which no credits were given. The success of the experiment has encouraged the school

Summer
Merit Courses
for Pupils in
Canada

authorities to make provision for similar courses in future planning.

* * *

Special attention is now being paid by Sweden to the question of the treatment of the pupils and their behaviour. Corporal punishment, already abolished in other types of schools, will henceforth also be abolished in Primary schools. Special instruction to help pupils fit into school life may be given to pupils who are badly behaved. Marks for behaviour and neatness will not be entered in the final marks the pupils receive when they leave school.

* * *

As part of the extension scheme now in progress, a students' village, the first of its kind in Britain, is to be built at Loughborough (Leicestershire) College of Technology. The village will cover more than 20 acres of ground and will be grouped around five courts, to be planted with trees. In the main street there will be a village coffee shop surrounded by a paved area where outdoor snacks can be served, and a news-agent's and a tobacconist's kiosk. At the end of the main street a nine-storey hostel for post-graduate students is to be built, and terrace blocks of two and three storeys will be grouped around the courts. In all there will be residential accommodation for 800 students in the village. Each court will have its own dining hall and common room. In addition to the village, new teaching buildings, including a six-storey science block, are to be built, as well as a students'

Students' Village in United Kingdom

union building and library, engineering and nuclear energy laboratories, and a workshop engineering block. When the scheme is completed the college will be able to cater for 1,400 students, about 50 per cent more than at present.

* * *

Elementary education (including Lower Secondary) in Yugoslavia is free and compulsory and lasts for eight years. It imparts general education for children between 7 and 15 years. The development of education under this compulsory system during the past few years may be seen from the fact that in 1956-57 there were 2,174,672 pupils in 14,297 schools as against 1,387,523 pupils in 13,872 schools in 1952-53.

Elementary Education in Yugoslavia

The first four years the children are expected to learn History, Geography, Mathematics, Writing (Roman and Cyrillic) and Handwork. After four years they learn Chemistry, Physics, Sciences, Drawing, Music and one foreign language. The schools normally have a small workshop with some electrical and mechanical equipment, carpentry, tools, bookbinding etc. The teaching in the Elementary schools is through the medium of the language of the Republic in which they are situated.

The framework of the curriculum for Elementary schools is laid down by the Federal Council for Education. The Education Committees of the commune or district may, however, add to it according to the needs and conditions prevailing there but always within the prescribed framework which applies uniformly to the whole of Yugoslavia.

● The careful reader of a few good newspapers can learn more in a year than most scholars do in their great libraries.

—F. B. Sanborn



Universities : Commonwealth and American ;
By *Oliver C. Carmichael*; Published by
Harper & Brothers Publishers, New York;
Pages XX + 390; Price \$6.00

Dr. Oliver C. Carmichael has made a thorough and comparative study of the Universities in the Commonwealth and in the United States of America, or 'the English Speaking World', as he prefers to call the countries covered in the book, viz., Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, India, Pakistan and the United States of America. Why Ceylon, among the Commonwealth countries, was left out of his purview has not been mentioned. University and Higher education in Ceylon, as in Burma and Malaya, have been no doubt influenced largely by the model of the University of London and of some of the older universities in India.

As a former President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, as Executive Secretary of the Carnegie Corporation, as a Consultant to the Ford Foundation for the Advancement of Education, and on the basis of his experience of 35 years in the field of education, Dr. Carmichael can speak with authority on the problems of Higher education. He has made a study of the varied system of University education in the Commonwealth and the U.S.A. Apart from the intellectual labour he has bestowed on his work, the physical strain undertaken by him of visiting fifty-seven universities, outside the U.S.A., in all the five continents to gather firsthand information of the working of the universities shows his zeal for an understanding of the problem of Higher education. The result has been a lucid but analytical and critical exposition of the prevailing system of University education in the English speaking areas in the two hemispheres and a direction,

according to his judgement, of change for the future. Besides the Preface and the Introduction setting forth the objects and nature of study, the book is divided into fourteen chapters dealing with the backgrounds, nature and aims, organisation and administration of University education in the U.S.A., and the Commonwealth. Separate chapters are devoted to students' organisations and services, women's education, professional and technological education, and extramural studies, etc. While describing in some detail the various aspects of University education in vitally separated areas the author has pointed out the characteristic features of the universities in each country. An attempt has been made in all the chapters to compare and contrast the developments in British Universities and their off-springs in the Commonwealth countries and the U.S.A. In the last two chapters, viz., 'Problems and Prospects of Higher Education' and 'Summary and Conclusions', the author seeks to highlight his impressions on fundamental trends and issues of Higher education in the countries covered by his study and suggests certain measures and procedures that might be useful at this stage of University education.

The boldest and perhaps the most ingenious suggestion of the author for the solution to the problems is the proposal for the establishment of a Commonwealth-American Commission on University Education on a five-to-ten-year basis for 'delving deep into the needs of Higher education and serving as a clearing house for information on ways and means of meeting them.' Such a Commission might work with and through the Commonwealth Association and the American Association of Universities in the consideration of plans for the improvement of University education. If Anglo-American cooperation in war time was essential to victory over common

foes and later in the solution of common economic problems, it may, the author argues, serve a useful purpose in the area of University education. While the suggestion is, no doubt, worth consideration, it is perhaps necessary to point out that analogies and parallelisms should not be carried too far. The end of the Second World War is too near to our memory to remind us that the Anglo-American cooperation was reinforced by the cooperation of Russia during the War and that the Commonwealth of today differs fundamentally from the British Empire of the War and pre-War days.

The author has treated the subject on the basis of the continuation of the conflict of the West with Russia. Since the Sputnik appeared, advancement of science and technology has seemed imperative as a matter of national and international security. The ability of the West to prevail in the case of open conflict with Russia would in the opinion of the author, depend upon the strength and the conviction of the western people as well as upon their potential weapon and military skill. The ideas and concepts which are basic to convictions become indispensable equipment in the arsenal of those who would defend western ideals. He, therefore, emphasises the responsibility of the Arts Faculties of Commonwealth and American Universities for providing the equipment.

The idea of emphasising too much "ideals central to western culture" and the tenets of democracy as against those of communism to inculcate in the youth the fundamentals of western concepts and ideals as distinguished from those of communism and to make the institutions of higher learning adjust their curriculum and courses of studies accordingly, may result in a wider gap and provide a greater handicap to the understanding of the East and the West. "Ideals worth fighting for", says he, "are surely worth inculcating." He advocates that it might require the historian to reorient his thinking; the philosopher might need to reinterpret his Aristotle, Descartes, Hegel and Kant in the light of modern developments including the social and economic changes imposed by scientific and

technological advances. While there is no difference of opinion that reorientation of thinking on social and economic problems may vitalize ideas and concepts, all may not agree that the universities and institutions of higher learning whose primary object is to pursue the advancement of knowledge and emancipation of intellect with a view to establishing the truth should be utilised as instruments for propagating any particular cult of practical politics whether it aims at the glorification of 'democracy' or 'communism'.

The book, within its small compass, gives a variety of useful information not merely on the existing educational systems in the Commonwealth and the U.S.A., but also in Russia and certain other countries. It is interesting to note that while the range of University terms vary from 24-36 weeks in Commonwealth and American Universities, the terms in some countries including Russia exceed 40 weeks a year. About one-eighth of the curriculum in the higher technological institutes in Russia is devoted to humanities and social sciences. While in India and Pakistan the proportion of men to women students is about ten to one as against three to one in other Commonwealth countries and two to one in the U.S.A., in Russia the sexes are equally divided in universities and institutions of Higher education, and in medicine 90 per cent of the Russian students are women. Strict selection of students is enforced to maintain and keep up the standard of Higher education in Russia. Of two million students who applied for admission to universities and colleges where vacancies existed for only 420,000 in 1957, entrance examination lasting more than a month were used in the selection of top students. Competitions of this nature not only keep the quality of students high but their motivation as well, lest they should lose their places to others. Such seriousness of purpose has not been visible in the Commonwealth and American countries studied by the author.

In dealing with the problem of financing Higher education the author gives high tribute to the University Grants Committee in Britain which during forty years of its

existence has done exemplary work to put the British Universities above want. Government funds bore 73.6 per cent of the burden of the University education in the United Kingdom in 1954-55. In the same year 72.9 per cent of all students registered in the Universities of Britain received some kind of scholarship or bursary aid. In India and Pakistan, on the other hand, fees for tuition and examinations bear a larger proportion of the cost of Higher education than in other Commonwealth countries. Reference is also made to the activities of the University Grants Commission in India, formally inaugurated by the Prime Minister in December 1953, to assist the Government of India in maintaining and developing high standards in universities and in providing facilities of research and promoting coordination of their work. But the organisation is yet too young for a judgement on its work.

There are three valuable appendices at the end of the book. One of them gives a list of some of the persons interviewed in Commonwealth Universities. There are some mistakes in the writing of Indian names and also in the description of their official designations which perhaps could not be avoided.

SUKUMAR BHATTACHARYA

Teaching in Comprehensive Schools; Published by Cambridge University Press; 1960; pp. 48

This 48-page booklet is the first report issued by the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools of Great Britain. This Association was founded in 1891 and represents over 20,000 Assistant Masters in the Public and other Independent schools, the Direct Grant schools and the Maintained Grammar and other Secondary schools including Comprehensive schools. It is well known that organisations of teachers in Great Britain are very powerful agencies. They command great influence and respect over the Ministry of Education and have a significant share in determining the educational policies of the nation.

This short report, therefore, would be an eye-opener to the Indian reader in general,

and to the teacher and educationist in India, in particular. Perhaps due to the pressure of circumstances organizations of teachers in India have devoted their entire energy to all kinds of demands for teachers—more pay, stability of service, better leave rules, regulated hours of work and more amenities for teachers. It is only after Independence that we have realised that organizations of teachers must develop the professional competence of their members. It is only then that the organizations can exert their rightful influence in determining the educational policies of our nation.

Every reader of this excellent report would be delighted at the clarity and confidence with which the assistant master is placing the facts. The report is characteristic of the true British genius of presenting cold facts with all the force of logic without any emotional appeal whatsoever. The picture of Comprehensive schools presented here is objective and unbiased. The Association of Assistant Masters deserves our congratulations for presenting such a sincere, candid and detached point of view.

The report strikes a note of caution in the truly pristine British fashion. The Englishman is known for his conservatism and his cautious approach to change. The Association of Assistant Masters is convinced that it would be most unwise and against the national interest to undertake a hasty and wholesale recasting of Secondary education. The Council of the Association has declared "while accepting the need for experiment with Comprehensive schools, the Council is vigorously opposed to the destruction of well established competent Grammar schools to make way for Comprehensive schools". Mark you, in the face of such sound and solid opposition the Association recognises that "Comprehensive schools are beginning to play an important part in the educational system...and the Association has been actively studying the practical, professional and educational problems arising in such schools."

The imperative need for the present report has been stated precisely on page 7—"What is printed and available says very little about that very important person,

the man who walks into a classroom of the Comprehensive school, takes charge and directs the activity that we call learning. 'This survey speaks for him.' It is remarkable that the views expressed in the report are those of assistant masters who know Comprehensive schools from *the inside*. Verbatim opinions are quoted from individual reports of members of the Association actually teaching in Comprehensive schools. So when you read the report you should forget that you are roaming in the pleasure garden of an educational theorist!

This brief report deals with all aspects of a Comprehensive school and touches on all problems: 1. Recruitment, 2. Internal Selection, 3. Teaching Groups, 4. Internal Transfer, 5. External Examinations, 6. Prestige and Leadership, 7. Standards of Work, 8. Staffing etc.

What are the important findings of the survey? First, the survey has shown clearly that there is no set pattern of Comprehensive school. Second, these schools are tackling boldly numerous problems—how to organise teaching groups, how to distribute the teaching staff over the widely different groups, how to prevent a school from becoming like a vast factory in which the individual child and the individual teacher feel lost and insignificant, how to get the child into the right group and how to transfer the child from the wrong group, how to cater at the same time for the brilliant child and for the unfortunately retarded child. Mark you, all these problems have a familiar ring! In some Multipurpose Higher Secondary schools we are struggling with these very problems.

No reader can escape the conclusion that this survey aims at presenting information and impressions; it does not take sides. This truly reflects the most admirable British trait of combining a conservative approach with an open mind. Remember the words (quoted earlier in this review): "the Council is vigorously opposed to the destruction of well-established, competent Grammar schools to make way for Comprehensive schools." And now read in the concluding paragraph of the report (page 48): "The constant and earnest experimentation and adaptation

which is a laudable feature of Comprehensive schools as they now are will surely continue and will lead to improved ways of dealing with the problems. It must be recognised that Comprehensive schools have both the vitality and the glowing pains of youth. It would be wrong to pass any final judgment on them." Finally the reader is left wondering at the sweet blending of liberal conservative and pragmatic approaches in these words: "Another objective survey in, say, five years' time may provide slightly different material for a considered opinion. In the meantime, the nation should be grateful that these experiments in the organisation of Secondary education are in such good hands."

G. CHAURASIA

The Anatomy of Judgment by *M. L. Johnson Abercrombie*; Published by Hutchinson of London—Pages 156; Price 25 s. net

This book, as the sub-title reveals, is an investigation into the processes of perception and reasoning—the processes that underlie the structure of scientific judgment. Besides throwing light on the origin and development of scientific judgment it highlights the factors that influence its formation. The ability to make scientific judgment is equated with the ability to make "a decision or conclusion on the basis of indications and probabilities when the facts are not clearly ascertained"—the ability that involves the "process of continually selecting from the information presented, interpreting it with information received in the past, and making predictions about the future."

The book has two distinct parts. The first part, consisting of three chapters, describes briefly but lucidly some important aspects of the relation between the inner and outer worlds. It explains clearly what perception is, and how its selective and interpretative qualities operate. It shows with the help of a number of very appropriate examples and experimental evidences how the information that a person gets from a specified part of the outer world depends on the context or total situation and on his past experience. This past experience, the author rightly adds, is generally organised

into schemata—'persistent, deep rooted and well organised classifications of ways of perceiving, thinking and behaving.' These schemata, we are told, are being continually influenced, tested and modified by the human relationships, in the midst of which the perceptive processes take place. To substantiate what she wants to say, the learned author, as pointed above, cites the studies made by Bartlett, Ames, Kilpatrick, Ittleson and Cantril and supports her contention by quoting experiments made by Bruner and Postman, Brooks, Porter, Metzger, Breughil, Kelley, Lewes and others—the experiments known as the 'Three Chairs,' the 'Three Men', the 'Three Triangles', 'the Distorted Room' and the 'Muller-Lyer Illusion.'

The second part of the book describes the results of the teaching project that the author carried out for medical students over a period of ten years. The author observed, as a teacher of Zoology, that students who came for medical training, in spite of having learned science subjects, did not necessarily use scientific ways of thinking to solve problems presented in a slightly new way. The author presumed that students were not able to make scientific judgments because of certain pre-perceptions and wrong ways of thinking and accepting facts. She wanted to improve this state of affairs and to effect this improvement, she began to teach through free discussion method, to small groups of students, in place of traditional lecture method. This method was devised to help students "to observe, describe, classify and evaluate experimental evidence" *e.g.* radiograph in an objective manner—qualities that develop the ability of making scientific judgment. Her hypothesis was that "discussion method" would provide better opportunities for students to learn to make better judgments because it would make them aware of some of the factors that influence their formation—the factors like perceptions, past experiences and human relationships in which perceptions take place.

Incidentally, the author brings out the limitations of the lecture method as far as the making of scientific judgment is concerned.

Students, the author contends rightly, hardly pay attention to the processes of observing and thinking as distinct from the results, when taught by the lecture method. On the other hand, when the discussion technique is used, students can compare not only the results but how the results or conclusions have been arrived at. They see how different factors affect our judgment and how there is a possibility of another's judgment being right.

The teaching project, based on eight discussions, attended by groups of students, each group comprising 12 students, for a number of years, showed that students who attended this course did significantly better than the others in many respects. For example, these students tended to discriminate better between facts and conclusions, to draw fewer false conclusions, to consider more than one solution to a problem and to be less adversely influenced by their experience of a preceding one. They were, thus, more objective and flexible in their behaviour, and therefore, tended to give better scientific judgments. They saw how our judgments were sometimes fallacious because they were being adversely influenced by our present perceptions, or previous experience or mind-sets or patterns of thinking or different interpretations and meanings that we give to the same words. According to students, the discussion method made them think and helped them to express themselves clearly, to understand what people are trying to say—it made them listen to others.

The author does not shut her eyes to some of the difficulties that students experienced in adopting the new method. Some of them were inherent in the very process of readjustment to a new method of teaching—the difficulties caused by "mental resistance". Other difficulties were that discussions were not sufficiently disciplined, that a lot of time was wasted through lack of chairmanship, that people who liked talking, talked and talked and would not allow others to have their say and that the aims were not made clear at a sufficiently early stage.

The book ends with a restatement of the argument in very precise and well chosen words. Form cover to cover, it provides interesting yet thought-provoking and intellectually satisfying reading. The style is marked by lucidity and vigour. The book is amply illustrated with seven plates in black and white and twelve line diagrams, besides numerous examples. It is a 'must' for psychologists who seek new experimental material on "judgment" and for all those who are interested in making bold experiments with teaching methods for adolescents and youth.

B. D. BHATIA

Science in Secondary Schools : Ministry of Education, Pamphlet No. 38; Published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1960; pp. vi+164; Price 6s. 0d. net

There are no two opinions regarding the importance of science as a part of education. The scientific knowledge and the ability to reason scientifically must be acquired by all and every effort should be made in this direction. Scientific education has to serve two important purposes; firstly, the training of specialists and secondly, the scientific education of an ordinary citizen to appreciate what science is achieving. It is most essential that an unbiased search after natural knowledge should be based mainly on scientific reasoning. Written by a group of 'Her Majesty's Inspectors' in a very clear and lucid style, the authors define the object of this pamphlet as "to survey the teaching of science in our schools, to analyse the purposes which should inspire it and to suggest practical measures for carrying out those purposes".

The pamphlet is divided into four parts. The first—the history and present position of science teaching in England, comprise three chapters, a hundred years of science teaching, the English tradition of science teaching, and the conditions under which science is taught: changes in the last twenty-five years. The conditions under which science was taught about hundred years back have been briefly described. Results of a survey of a representative sample of 98 modern schools and

54 Grammar schools to find out the conditions under which science was being taught reveal some interesting findings.

The second part deals with the science course for students of eleven to fifteen years age group and comprises five chapters, the development of children and teaching of science, the design of the course, general studies, the simple empirical approach and practical work and demonstrations. It has been brought out that less stress should be laid on abstract thoughts. Both the twin aims of knowledge and training must be kept in view and to achieve these a number of points have been dealt with in detail. The true meaning of the term "simple empirical approach" has been explained with the help of photographs taking three topics for the purpose of illustration.

The third part discusses the course of studies for pupils over the age of fifteen years and separate chapters have been devoted to general considerations, the scientific method and the place of mathematics in it, science for the non-scientist, science for the scientist, science for other pupils, the teaching of biology, the teaching of chemistry and the teaching of physics. It has been stressed that the scientist should be educated as well as trained and that liberal education is essential. It has been suggested that there should not be more than one examination for pupils and that too near or at the end of the course. If each examination became less widespread in its incidence and more closely linked to the needs of the groups of candidates and if elementary examinations aimed more to test the contribution of science towards general education rather than elementary skill useful only at a later stage, the effect on the system as a whole will be most beneficial.

The fourth part deals with some practical considerations in the teaching of science under three heads, the design of laboratories, the teacher of science, and the making and design of apparatus in schools. It is suggested that some of the best students of the research departments of the universities should also become teachers in the true interest of these departments as well.

The pamphlet is usefully provided with six plates of photographs and seven diagrams for illustration. Two appendices, one on laboratory assistance, and the other on list of tools for the science department, have been thoughtfully included together with a well written conclusion giving a quick over-all picture of the whole situation. It can safely be hoped that this pamphlet will be well received and should prove very helpful and informative not only to planners of education and teachers of science in Secondary schools but also to all others who have an interest in the subject.

S. P. G.

Practical Handbook of Guidance in Secondary Schools by *S. M. Mohsin*, Director, Bihar State Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance; Patna, 1959; Price Rs. 1.31

The Mudaliar Commission on Secondary Education visualised that guidance should become an integral part of every school. It is now universally accepted that educational guidance should receive much greater attention than it has done in the past. The secret of good education consists in enabling the students to discover their interests, talents and aptitudes. Guidance involves the difficult art of helping boys and girls to plan their future wisely. In the early part of the 20th century guidance was confined to the vocational field only. Now it has been realised that the objectives of guidance are as broad as those of education itself. The Mudaliar Commission rightly declared that guidance "covers the whole gamut of youth problems and should be provided in an appropriate form at all stages of education through the cooperative behaviour of understanding parents, teachers, headmasters, principals and guidance officers."

In this context it is obvious that we need all the guidance from our experts for providing guidance services in schools and colleges. Mr. Mohsin has rendered a concrete service to the field workers by writing the Handbook. The Handbook presents "concrete, cut-and-trial-and-error approach." There is no dearth of foreign books on guidance and

allied subjects. But only an expert in this country can guide us in showing how much of the foreign products are applicable to our situations. Mr. Mohsin has planned the handbook to suit our conditions and the pattern of education that we have accepted.

The author has rightly pointed out that guidance has a very special significance in the context of our national development plans. The success of our Five-Year Plan rests on the planning of our man-power potential. We must make full use of our Secondary schools for the preparation of man-power. Systematic programmes of guidance in our Secondary schools would provide a happy union between the training of our students in the acquirement of knowledge and skill and the national requirements of man-power for achieving the targets of national development plans. Thus the author is convinced that guidance services should occupy a supreme place in the planning of prosperity.

The author points out that there are three major divisions of guidance—Educational, Vocational and Personal. But these divisions are not like watertight compartments. There is no real difference between the problems to which the different types of guidance services are addressed. An individual's problems may appear to arise in this or that particular situation, but a guidance worker must be able to comprehend the intricate inter-relationship of all the problems. This establishes the need for the training of personnel for guidance services. Appendix I of the Handbook gives a brief outline of the training courses conducted by the Bihar State Educational and Vocational Guidance Bureau.

Some readers of the Handbook may be surprised to find that the main body of the book consists of only six chapters in 84 pages whereas the appendix of the Handbook contains twenty items and runs to 85 pages. But this is precisely the purpose of a Handbook. It gives plenty of information about all important aspects of guidance work. One of the problems of our country, in almost all walks of national life, is that there is little exchange of news and views

at the State level. Most readers of this Handbook would be surprised to know that so much is being done in Bihar with regard to guidance work. Another good feature of the Handbook is that it has given all important sources which can supply literature and material useful for guidance work. The Handbook is not only useful for teachers in Secondary schools but also for all training colleges that deal with guidance services.

G. CHAURASIA

Family Planning, Sterility and Population Growth by *Ronald Freedman, Pascal K. Whelpton and Arthur A. Campbell*; Published by McGraw-Hill Book Company; 1959

The Publication under review embodies the results of a study conducted by the authors under the joint auspices of the Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems, Miami University and the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan. The object of the study has been to have a better understanding of the American population trends, and the factors which determine the number of children that married couples have and the time when they have the children.

To that end, information had been obtained about how many children couples want, and to what extent they fail to reach the number they expect either through physical and/or economic disabilities, or exceed the wanted number through unwillingness to adopt family limitation methods or through failure to use them effectively. The authors claim that the results they present are approximation of facts on a national scale (p. 1).

The basic data for this national scale report were obtained by interviewing 2,713 young married white women, concerning the past and prospective growth of their families. The interviews covered such topics as births, miscarriages, sterility, methods of avoiding pregnancy and the desired and expected number of children. The authors say (p. 13) that no one had attempted to ask questions about such personal and sensitive topics as miscarriages,

sterility, and family limitation practices, in a "scientific" sample survey for the entire U.S.A.; there were doubts regarding willingness of wives to talk with the interviewers, but state that these doubts were completely resolved later. How, it is not stated.

91% (2,713 for the whole of U.S.A.) of the women chosen are stated to have cooperated; the 9% (195 women) remaining were not interviewed; average length of the interview was about $1\frac{1}{4}$ hours (p. 14); what the women told about their expected future behaviour could not be checked in the same way as their replies to factual questions (p. 15).

The 2,713 wives were selected in such a way as to constitute a "scientific probability sample" of approximately 17 million wives (whites) of the nation as in March 1955 (p. 10). The sampling of the women for the interview rested on dividing U.S.A. into 2500 primary sampling units; these units were sorted into 66 strata and these sixty-six sampling units correspond to that of the total population of U.S.A. (p. 444). Maps showing total population distribution and sample units are given on p. 446.

The study was confined to white married women between ages 18 and 39 years (p. 10). Married women residing in military establishments, hospitals, religious and educational institutions, penal institutions, Y.W.C.A. hostels and larger rooming houses were excluded from the study; but single women living in some of these places were included (p. 444).

Only wives were interviewed. Husbands were excluded. The information forming the basis of the book was obtained through the answers provided to some or all of 51 questions, dealing with such topics as fecundity, use of contraception, attitudes towards contraception, number of children already born, expectations about future child-bearing and attitudes. Through a further set of 46 questions information on socio-economic background (e.g. religion, education, income, social status etc.), towards family size (p. 431) were sought.

This is the basic methodology, and information on which the book of about 500

printed pages is produced. It is difficult to understand how the information provides facts about U.S.A. on a national scale, as stated by the authors (p. 1).

Normally a book of this kind would not have warranted any serious attention. But it is the respect which the reviewer has for the auspices (the Scripps Foundation) under which the study has been made that has prompted the reviewer to study and enumerate the salient features to the readers. The conclusions (p. 400 *et seq.*) drawn by the authors can at best be said to be speculations instead of valid conclusions based on valid data.

B. K. RAO

Earth Science—the World We Live In by Samuel N. Namowitz and Donald B. Stone; Published by D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., U.S.A., 1960; pp. 614

'Earth Science' often called the physiography or physical geography, deals with the surface features of the earth. In a broader sense it includes the study of land forms, the oceans, the atmosphere and the earth in space. Evidently the subject embodies several branches of science such as astronomy, mineralogy, geology, oceanography, meteorology, climatology and many divisions of geography. The present book is a comprehensive treatment of the 'Earth Science' incorporating the results of the most recent research covered by the International Geophysical Year.

The book is divided into six units under each of which are included several chapters. At the end of each chapter there is a series of topic questions in which the student is asked to explain in his own words the principal points discussed in each chapter. To make the book a better instrument of teaching and learning, a second colour has been introduced throughout the text.

The first unit on 'Earth and Land Forms' deals with the study of minerals and rocks, water, wind, earthquake, volcanoes and floods. Over 180 important minerals are shown in an eight-page four-colour chart. A very useful chapter on reading topographic maps has been added to provide an under-

standing of this tool so essential for an earth scientist. The second unit on 'Earth and History' describes the story of the earth and the life that developed on it in four chapters. The third unit on 'The Earth and the Universe' concerns with the story of stars and galaxies, the solar system, the satellites, space travel, the motion of the earth, location and keeping time. Unit IV on 'Earth and its Atmosphere' deals with the meteorology and covers studies on weather elements like temperature, pressure, wind, humidity, cloudiness and rainfall. Unit V on 'Earth and its Oceans' describes in brief, essentials of oceanography. The last unit on 'Earth and its Climates' concerns with the study of climatology and describes the factors such as temperature, moisture, winds, frost, the storm and the snow-fall. The principal climatic regions of the world are also discussed in the last chapter of this unit. The book also contains a useful glossary of about 600 terms often encountered in Earth Science and the Appendix gives a list of important minerals and their major physical properties such as hardness, specific gravity, colour and lustre.

A course on relevant portions of Physics and Chemistry seems indispensable for an appreciation of the subject of Earth Science in all its aspects. Inclusion of separate chapters on the essentials of Physics and Chemistry would further enhance the value of the book. It would perhaps be more logical for the development of the subject to have the topic on 'Earth and its History' as the first unit. On page 9, fig. 2-1, the cross section of the earth from the surface indicates a layer of M-discontinuity, the full description of which has not been mentioned in the text. In the chapter on 'Minerals and the Rocks' mention ought to have been made on the well known theory that the outer core of the interior of the earth consists of material not much different from that of the mantle transformed under prevailing high pressures. In the Appendix on minerals it would seem more useful to have the chemical formulae of the minerals.

This is indeed a very useful book on the subject for school students and will also be a valuable addition to any library as it con-

tains a wealth of information on varied topics of interest to a general reader.

V.S. RAMACHANDRAN

Giants Cast Long Shadows by Sir Robert Bruce; Lockhart; Published by Putnam, 42, Great Russel Street, London; 1960; 21 sh. net; pp. 253

Giants Cast Long Shadows is a fascinating personal memoir of the author who is an eminent diplomat, writer and angler. Wielding a facile and felicitous pen the author brings into focus life in England, Scotland and Europe since the turn of the twentieth century. He does this through illuminating pen portraits of leading politicians like Lenin, Clemenceau, Lloyd George and Churchill; of western diplomats like Vansittart, Harold Nicolson and George Kennan; of men of letters like John Bennett-Wheeler, Howard Spring and W. E. Johns; of sportsmen like K.G. Macleod and Charnock brothers and anglers like Mrs. J. L. Wood. Several other celebrities like Anthony Eden, Aneurin Bevan, Richard Crossman, Benes, Masaryk etc. flit across the pages.

Sir Robert Bruce Lockhart gives a lacerating account of Nazi torture of the Czech leaders, Benes and Samal and of the tragic disillusionment and death of the Polish patriot, Stefan Ritauer. He also takes us through the interesting life of William Alistair Macdonald who gave up everything in order to paint and who, in his yearning for blue skies, sunshine and colour, left Scotland at the late age of 93 and settled down in a little house at Pao Pao in South Sea Islands and became famous as Scottish Louguin. The last few pages of this book are replete with the author's love for the Scottish highlands and his favourite pastime of angling.

Sir Bruce Lockhart says that of all Europeans, the Scot, particularly the Highlander is a great traveller. Who can deny this observation after strolling with Sir Bruce Lockhart in his reminiscences on his extensive travels with their exhilarating experiences as reflected in this entrancing book? In *Giants Cast Long Shadows*, the author throws a luminous light on some of the great men and events shaping human destinies.

C.K.

साहित्य और कला: लेखक—भगवत शरण उपाध्याय; प्रकाशक—आत्माराम एण्ड सन्ज दिल्ली; पृष्ठ संख्या २०३; १९६०।

साहित्य और कला संस्कृति के स्तम्भ हैं। आलोचना के क्षेत्र में हिन्दी में इन विषयों पर बहुत कुछ लिखा जा चुका है। किन्तु कला एवं साहित्य मानव मन की मूलभूत स्थायी भावों पर आधारित हैं। अतः इनकी विवेचना कभी भी 'अधिक' नहीं मानी जा सकती। अनेक प्रकार के दृष्टिकोणों से साहित्य एवं कला का मूल्यांकन हुआ है। श्री श्याम सुन्दर दास एवं शुक्ल जी से लेकर डा० रामविलास तक शास्त्रीय, वैयक्तिक मनोवैज्ञानिक आदि पद्धतियों का उपयोग होता रहा है किन्तु कला एवं साहित्य की विभिन्न धाराओं को ऐतिहासिक पृष्ठ भूमि पर रख कर समझने का प्रयास कुछ ही आलोचकों ने किया है जिनमें हजारी प्रसाद द्विवेदा अग्रणी हैं। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक भी इसी दिशा में एक महत्वपूर्ण प्रयास है। श्री भगवत शरण उपाध्याय प्रसिद्ध इतिहासकार, पुरातत्ववेत्ता एवं कलामर्मज्ञ हैं। इनकी लेखनी से ऐतिहासिक दृष्टिकोण को प्रधानता मिलनी ही चाहिये। आलोचना के क्षेत्र में इस दृष्टिकोण के औचित्य-अनौचित्य का प्रश्न उठ सकता है। मूर्तिकार मूर्ति के माध्यम से हृदयगत भावों की अभिव्यक्ति करता है और साहित्यकार साहित्य के माध्यम से। अभिव्यक्ति के माध्यम अलग-अलग हैं, किन्तु उनके मूल में भावनायें ही हैं। इन भावनाओं पर सम-सामयिक ऐतिहासिक स्थिति एवं प्रवृत्तियों का प्रभाव ही नहीं होता वरन् कभी-कभी ये सीधे ऐतिहासिक प्रवृत्तियों की उपज होती हैं।

अतः इस दृष्टिकोण से लिखी गई प्रत्येक आलोचना पुस्तक का हिन्दी जगत में उचित समादर होना चाहिए। उपाध्याय जी इसके लिये धन्यवाद के पात्र हैं।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में २७ निबन्ध हैं—इक्कीस साहित्य-विषयक एवं छः कला विषयक। साहित्य विषयक निबन्धों में लेखक ने बहुत बड़ी परिधि बनाने का प्रयास किया है इससे यह लाभ तो अवश्य होता है कि आधुनिक नाटककार, कवि एवं कथाकार के सम्मुख उपस्थित समस्याओं का ही परिचय नहीं मिलता प्रत्युत हिन्दी साहित्य में उठ रहे आधुनिक आन्दोलनों का भी परिचय मिलता है। इतना ही नहीं अक्कद, मिश्र, डेनमार्क

और नारवे के साहित्य पर अलग-अलग निबन्ध हैं। भारतीय शोध एवं यूनान के देवी-देवता पर भी निबन्ध हैं।

कला विषयक निबन्ध भी विभिन्न प्रकार के हैं। दो निबन्ध 'जनरल' हैं, दो चित्रकार एवं मूर्तिकार की आधुनिक समस्याओं पर हैं। बाकी के दो में से एक आधुनिक चित्रकला पर दूसरा प्राचीन वस्तु कला पर। इस विशाल पट्ट को देख कर लेखक की बहुमुखी प्रतिभा का परिचय तो मिलता है, किन्तु पुस्तक के निबन्धों में कोई तारतम्य नहीं दिखाई पड़ता तथा निबन्धों के विषयों के चुनाव के प्रति लेखक के दृष्टिकोण के बारे में भी कुछ ज्ञात नहीं होता। अच्छा होता यदि लेखक साहित्य एवं कला का इतिहास, विभिन्न वाद, आन्दोलन, साहित्यकारों एवं कलाकारों की समस्याएँ, अन्य देशों के साहित्य से भारतीय साहित्य की तुलना आदि कोई एक विषय लेकर उसके सभी रूपों की गम्भीर विवेचना करता।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक की शैली अत्यन्त ओजपूर्ण एवं प्रवाहमय है। कहीं-कहीं नाटकीयता एवं भाषण की गन्ध आती है, किन्तु पाठक की रुचि निरन्तर बनी रहती है। 'आधुनिक' चित्रकला पर लिखा गया अन्तिम निबन्ध सर्वोत्तम है। पुस्तक की छपाई स्वच्छ एवं 'सेट अप' साधारण है।

D. K.

यौन मनोविज्ञान : मूल लेखक — हैवलॉक एलिस; अनुवादक—मन्मथनाथ गुप्त; प्रकाशक—राजपाल एन्ड सन्ज; मूल्य—आठ रुपए।

इधर हिन्दी में मनोविज्ञान और यौन-विज्ञान सम्बन्धी अनेक प्रसिद्ध और प्रमाणिक ग्रन्थों का हिन्दी में अनुवाद किया गया है। राजपाल एन्ड सन्ज फ़ाउण्ड के युगान्तरकारी ग्रंथ "साइको-एनालिसिस" का हिन्दी अनुवाद प्रकाशित कर चुके हैं। प्रस्तुत ग्रन्थ इस क्षेत्र में हिन्दी पाठकों को उनकी दूसरी देन है।

यौन-मनोविज्ञान के अधिकारी विद्वान् हैवलॉक एलिस ने "स्टडीज इन साइकोलोजी आफ सेक्स" के नाम से सात खण्डों का एक बृहद् ग्रन्थ लिखा था। लोगों के जोर देने पर उन्होंने उसकी भूमिका के तौर पर एक

छोटा ग्रन्थ "साइकोलोजी आफ सेक्स" के नाम से लिखा। उन्होंने स्वयं अपनी भूमिका में लिखा है कि "मैं इस बात की सफाई नहीं देना चाहता कि पुस्तक संक्षिप्त होने के साथ सरल है। इस रूप में यह चिकित्साशास्त्र के पाठकों और छात्रों तक अच्छी तरह पहुँच सकती है, जिनके लिए यह पुस्तक मुख्यतः लिखी गई है। पर कुछ ऐसी मोटी बातें हैं जिनका ज्ञान सब को होना चाहिए।" मूल लेखक ने ही यह कहा है कि पुस्तक विशेषतः चिकित्साशास्त्र के विद्यार्थियों के लिए है और इस कारण आम पाठकों के लिए सुबोध्य होने का दावा उन्होंने नहीं किया है। फिर अनुवाद के सरल और सुबोध होने की अपेक्षा करना ठीक नहीं है।

इसमें सन्देह नहीं कि अनुवादक का काम सरल नहीं था। उनके सामने वही कठिनाइयाँ थीं जो किसी भी बुनियादी काम करने वालों के आगे आती हैं।

हिन्दी के लिये नया विषय होने के कारण नए शब्दों की खोज वास्तव में बहुत कठिन है। किसी विशेष विषय से सम्बन्धित नई शब्दावली को समझना साधारण पाठक के लिए कठिन है, खास तौर से यदि मूल अंग्रेजी शब्दों से उसका परिचय न हो।

अनुवादक को केवल भाषा पर ही अधिकार नहीं है, बल्कि, उन्होंने स्वयं इस विषय का अच्छा अध्ययन किया है। वैज्ञानिक और टेक्नीकल पुस्तकों के अनुवादकों के आम दोष — यानी कथ्य को ग्रहण किए बिना ही कथन का अक्षरशः अनुवाद कर डालना — से वर्तमान अनुवादक प्रायः मुक्त हैं। हिन्दी के लिए यह विषय सर्वथा नवीन है। इस कारण यह स्वाभाविक है कि हर एक अनुवादक या लेखक अपनी ही शब्दावली का प्रयोग करे। पूर्व अनुवादित कुछ पुस्तकों में "मेसाकिस्ट" के लिए "पीडित-तोष" और "सेडिस्ट" के लिए "पीडित-तोष" का प्रयोग किया गया है। श्री मन्मथनाथ गुप्त ने "मेसा किज्म" के लिए "मासोकवाद" और "सेडिज्म" के लिए "सादवाद" लिखा है। इसी प्रकार उन्होंने "लिबिडो" (libido) के लिए लिखा है "जिजीविषा।" यदि कोई पाठक इस शब्द का अर्थ शब्द कोष में ढूँढ़े तो उसका अर्थ मिलेगा "जीने की इच्छा"। केवल शब्दकोष की सहायता से यह नहीं

समझा जा सकता कि इस प्रसंग में यह शब्द क्या अर्थ रखता है। यह वही समझ सकता है जिसे "libido" का अर्थ मालूम हो। यों तो नए शब्दों का कोष पुस्तक के अन्त में दे दिया गया है, पर पाठक को अधिक सुविधा होती यदि हिन्दी के नए शब्दों के साथ ही साथ प्रचलित अंग्रेजी मूल भी दे दिए गए होते।

अनुवादक ने अपनी ओर से पुस्तक को भरसक "सहजबोध्य" बनाने का प्रयास किया है; पर विषय की दुरुहता और पर्यायों की कठिनाता के कारण कहीं-कहीं वाक्य रचना बहुत पेंचदार हो गई है। अनुवादक इस कठिनाई

से विज्ञ है। उन्होंने स्वयं अपनी भूमिका में कहा है कि "पुस्तक बहुत ही वैज्ञानिक है, इसलिए इसके अनुवाद में काफी दिक्कत आई है।" अभी वह समय नहीं आया है जब सेक्स-मनोविज्ञान के छात्रों के लिए हिन्दी के माध्यम से ही इस विषय का अध्ययन करना आवश्यक हो। पर इससे अनुवाद की उपयोगिता कम नहीं होती। जब ऐसा समय आएगा तब निःसन्देह इस अनुवाद का मूल्य समझा जा सकेगा।

पुस्तक की सज्जा और छपाई सुन्दर है।

मोहिनी राव

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N.B. : Provisional Lists of Technical Terms in Hindi are not available for general distribution.

The Indian Journal of Educational Administration and Research

The Ministry of Education, Government of India, has started this journal recently. It is published quarterly and presents information and contemporary articles of opinion on educational administration and research. It also provides light and interesting material on the subject.

The inaugural (Summer 1960) issue is out. Enquiries may be addressed to :

The Editor,
**Indian Journal of Educational Administration
and Research,**

Research & Publications Division, 'M' Block,
Ministry of Education, Government of India,
NEW DELHI

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The Winter 1960 Issue of THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY will be a Special Plan Number devoted to a discussion of educational planning in India. It will have articles by prominent educationists on the progress of education under the first two Plans and the proposals, targets, priorities and schemes of education in the Third Five-Year Plan. Besides, there will be a symposium on "Education in the Third Plan".

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T O L E T

about this issue

IT IS PERTINENT AT THIS MOMENT, when we are on the eve of the Third Five-Year Plan, to consider the extent of educational effort that we envisage during the crucial years that follow. It is specially appropriate that, in this present issue, the *Education Quarterly* has chosen for its dominant theme, the country's plans for educational development during the Third Plan period. It hardly needs telling that any lagging behind in educational progress would render the strides that we may make in other fields nugatory, and in the long run, devoid of meaning and empty of content. No doubt, our problems in the educational field are immense and far-reaching, and some of them may look more immediately pressing than others like, for instance, making our millions literate. But, in actual fact, while particular problems have to be immediately tackled, it is no less vital that the field of Education, as a whole, has to be grappled with at all levels.

What, then, are the challenges that education throws out to the nation? What are the tasks ahead? These are explained in a lucid statement by K. L. Shrimali in the article adapted from an address of the Union Education Minister to the Conference of State Education Ministers held recently at New Delhi. Specific questions are taken up for discussion by G. Chaurasia who explains the full implications of the Compulsory Education Scheme, by D. P. Nayar who focuses his attention on Plan-

ning Education for Leadership, by Durgabai Deshmukh who, in an arresting contribution, analyses the special problems of women's education and the targets, and the special programmes and schemes in this field under the Third Plan. Austin A. D'Souza, F. H. Rizvi and K. L. Gandhi, in articles that do not impinge mainly on the Third Five-Year Plan for Education, discuss the questions of Central, State or Local Control in Education, the Economics of Higher Education and Compulsory National Service. These have a relevance in the context of our planning for Education during the next five years. There is also a symposium in which S. N. Saraf, P. K. Roy, Samuel Mathai and Edward A. Pires discuss the financial allocation for education in the Third Five-Year Plan, priorities, targets and special cares to be exercised in our educational efforts under the Plan.

It is hoped that the contributions as well as the statistical tables that we have appended in this issue, would throw some light to our readers on our educational proposals during the next five years. One would wish that problems were fewer and financial resources less scanty. As things are, however, the task is formidable and brooks no delay. It is the extent to which we bring about reforms in Education that would make our gains in other spheres yield concrete, practical advantages. The impressive Liner of the prosperous State, whose construction has been undertaken, would fumble and falter in an uncharted sea, were she not provided with the rudder and ballast of thought and knowledge.

—EDITOR

cooperation of *Panchayat Samitis* who were responsible for mobilising a good deal of local support and enthusiasm for the campaign. The technique of annual enrolment drives has been so successful that I would recommend its adoption by all the States.

The second important aspect of this enrolment problem is to assist the poor and needy parents by providing school uniforms, text-books and school meals for the children. These basic needs must be met if the programme of compulsory education is to be effective. We have to make special efforts in the Third Plan to mobilise community effort to meet these essential needs. The question of text-books is of particular importance. In some places too many books are prescribed and changed too often. Moreover, the average life of our text-books is very small—a little more than a year—while it is about 8 years in the U.K. All these factors which increase the cost of education will retard progress of education particularly in the poorer sections of our community. The Union Ministry is making a careful study of this problem and will soon propose suitable measures to produce suitable, inexpensive and durable text-books through private enterprise, if possible, and through Government agencies, if necessary. The need for providing mid-day meals cannot be over-stressed. The majority of our children are under-nourished and, unless adequate provision can be made by the school to supplement the poor nourishment which they receive at homes, their physical and mental growth will be retarded. I should like to commend here the scheme of the Madras Government where the local community and the State share this responsibility jointly. The community provides 4 nP. per meal and the State gives a grant-in-aid of 6 nP. per meal.

Fair Deal to Teachers

The third and most important part of the programme is the recruitment of teachers. The quality of education depends mainly on the competence and devotion of tea-

chers. In order to attract the right kind of teachers and to keep them contented, it is of the utmost importance that every possible effort is made to improve their conditions of service. The Union Ministry had suggested to the State Governments some time back that the minimum basic salary of a trained and untrained teacher should be Rs. 50 and Rs. 40 respectively. It is gratifying that most of the States have now been able to agree to this suggestion and the primary teachers are now getting these basic salaries. There are a few States which are still lagging behind. It is my fervent hope that they will make up this deficiency in the Third Plan period. I would also urge that the same dearness allowance be paid to the teachers as is being paid to Government servants. There are some States which make no distinction between primary teachers and other Government servants in respect of payment of dearness allowance but in some of the States a difference detrimental to the teacher still exists. The advantage of getting a high salary is lost if the dearness allowance of the teacher is not equalised. It is common knowledge that there has been a considerable rise in the cost of living and the basic salary which we are now giving to the teachers is hardly adequate to enable them to make both ends meet. The teacher is a public servant and, whether he is employed by a local body or a private agency or Government, he is entitled to the same dearness allowance as is given to Government servants. I would therefore make an appeal to the State Governments to find ways and means to give the same benefit of dearness allowance to all the teachers as is given to Government servants. When this has been done there will be no need for teachers to seek promotion as peons as is happening today in some parts of the country. In this connection I should also like to suggest that a reasonable old-age provision for the primary school teacher and his family should be made. I would like to commend in this connection the triple benefit scheme of pension-cum-provident fund-cum-insurance

adopted in Madras. I had brought to the notice of the States some time ago the suggestion that a scheme might be devised to give free tuition to the children of all teachers. I hope it will receive a sympathetic consideration. The Union Ministry is also working out a scheme for giving special scholarships for higher studies to such children of teachers as show outstanding ability. These are some of the measures which, if adopted, will make the teaching profession a little more attractive than it is at present.

It is obvious that, if we have to increase the emoluments of teachers and expand the educational facilities at the same time, we shall have to effect economies on other items of expenditure. The one item in our educational budget where considerable economy could be effected without in any way lowering the standards of instruction is the construction of buildings. In the past we have placed too much emphasis on buildings and have made little attempt to persuade and help the community in shouldering this responsibility. If the programme of universal education is to be effective, our traditional approach with regard to school buildings will have to be radically altered. We must spend as little as possible on buildings and reduce their cost by every known device, such as use of local material, voluntary labour and simplicity of design. We may not have sufficient funds even for this reduced programme of building and it would therefore be desirable to phase the programme over a longer period so that the essentials may be provided first. But crucial to the success of the programme is the mobilisation of community resources. The local community will have to be made responsible for the construction and maintenance of buildings and the provision of equipment. Unless community participation is secured in a big way this vast programme cannot be put through now or for many years to come. It may be interesting to know that some significant experiments have been made in Delhi which have reduced the building cost by half and some-

times even more than half. This has been brought about by better utilisation of space, modified specifications and use of cheaper building materials.

Reorganisation of Secondary Education

Turning to secondary education, it is gratifying to note that the reorganisation is taking place according to plan. By the end of the Second Plan it is hoped that about 20% of the schools would have been converted to the higher secondary pattern. By the end of the Third Plan it is proposed to convert at least 50% of the schools. The prevalence of different patterns of secondary education has increased the number of terminal examinations with consequent wastage at each stage. It is therefore desirable that every possible effort is made to shorten the period of transition by completing the conversion of schools as early as possible. I am glad to say that some of the States have planned to complete the conversion of all schools to the higher secondary pattern by the end of the Third Plan.

During the Second Five-Year Plan, though considerable progress in the conversion of ordinary high schools into multipurpose schools has been made, the new courses in technical and other practical subjects have not produced satisfactory results. Multipurpose education, as a distinctly demarcated terminal stage, involves the reorganisation of the curriculum to suit new objectives, a reorientation of the methods of teaching and assessment and a strong Guidance Service. The main reason why the objectives of multipurpose education have not been so far fully realised is the lack of trained personnel for teaching practical subjects. In order to overcome the deficiency, the Union Ministry is proposing to establish four Regional Training Colleges. I am glad that the State Governments have not only welcomed this proposal but have suggested the opening of more regional colleges. The development of multipurpose schools with a view to giving to secondary education a strong, well-

articulated vocational and practical bias is one of the major recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission. The Government have accepted multipurpose education with all its social and educational implications as the dominant pattern for the future development of secondary education. It is no longer considered merely as education of the *elite*, but has to cater for a wide range of abilities and aptitudes and also to serve the diversified needs of a modern industrial society. I would therefore request the States not to be deterred by doubts or difficulties but make headway with this much-needed reform in our secondary education.

Another urgent problem, that deserves our attention is the improvement and expansion of science teaching in secondary schools. Both at the secondary and university stages the output of science students is far short of the needs of a rapidly developing industrial economy. Scientific subjects have to become a part of the core studies at the secondary stage and provision has also to be made for elective science courses with a view to expand facilities for specialisation. It is hoped that during the course of the Third Five-Year Plan general science courses would be introduced in all secondary schools and elective science courses would be available in at least 25% schools. The level of science teaching will have to be raised and with this object in view a comprehensive training programme for teachers would be necessary. It is essential that promising scientific talent which reveals itself at the secondary stage should be given special opportunities for development and the wastage that occurs through a variety of reasons should be eliminated as far as possible. A small committee of experts is being set up to make a practical study of these problems and formulate a programme in consultation with the State Governments which we hope would help in markedly accelerating the development of science studies in our schools.

Improvement of Higher Education

The University Grants Commission, as is well known, has in cooperation with the universities, initiated a number of significant programmes to improve the quality of university education. These will be carried forward on a larger scale in the Third Plan. They provide for encouragement of research and various measures designed to improve the facilities for the teaching of science, introduction of the 3-year degree course, better hostel facilities and improvement of salary scales of teachers. The pressure of rising numbers has continued to pose a very difficult problem. Indiscriminate admissions to universities and colleges neutralise all efforts to improve educational standards. It is the considered view of the University Grants Commission and of the Government that no appreciable improvement in standards can take place unless the rising tide of numbers can be stemmed and admission is given on a selective basis only to those who have the capacity to benefit from it. I am aware of the view held in some quarters that the doors of universities should not be closed to any one. It is argued that, by denying these opportunities to young men and women, we create obstacles in their betterment. While these critics show concern about the students who cannot get admission to the universities, they have no solution to the problem of finding additional resources for paying adequate salaries to the teachers or for equipping libraries and laboratories. I am therefore doubtful whether they are genuinely interested either in the progress of education or of these young men. If we go on adding to numbers without providing adequate facilities, the quality of higher education which is already poor will be diluted to such an extent that it would be a misnomer to call it education. It would be a more straightforward and honest course to admit that, however laudable the aim may be to give higher education to all who need it, it cannot be achieved within our limited resources.

While it is not possible to offer facilities for collegiate education to all candidates

regardless of their standard of attainment and abilities, Government are aware of the need for providing suitable avenues to those who wish to better their academic qualifications but do not have the facilities to pursue the normal full-time courses of instruction. For this purpose we are considering the question of introducing some such system of external degrees as is prevalent in some of the universities abroad and organising correspondence courses. In the Third Plan a provision for such facilities has been made for 60,000 students.

There is another matter concerning the development of university education to which I would like to make a brief reference. In its Report for the year 1958-59, the University Grants Commission expressed its strong view that new universities should be established only after the most careful examination of all aspects of the question and that, in accordance with the provisions of its Act, an opportunity should be given to the Commission to advise on any such proposal. The Commission's experience has been that it is either not consulted or is consulted in such a perfunctory way that it cannot formulate proper advice. Since the Commission is entrusted with the task of promotion and coordination of university education and the determination and maintenance of standards of teaching, examination and research, it is advisable that a convention is established whereby, before bringing any new university into being, the State Governments consult the Commission in the matter. The consensus of opinion in Parliament also favours the growth of such healthy

conventions between the University Grants Commission and the State Governments in this very important matter. I would therefore request the States to give their careful consideration to this matter and help the University Grants Commission to discharge its statutory obligation in a satisfactory manner.

Before concluding I should like to refer to a national problem which is causing considerable anxiety to all of us. The strength with which fissiparous tendencies are gathering in our country should be a warning to us. If we do not pay attention to this problem in time and root out narrow parochialism and separatist tendencies, the country faces grave dangers. Educationists have to accept without reservation the task of meeting this challenge. If education fails to promote social cohesion, emotional integration and national solidarity among the youth, it will be a major failure of our educational system. The courses of study, methods of teaching and the training programmes will have to be so organised that they all contribute to the development of social consciousness and national solidarity.

The educational development of our country is a field of great opportunities and challenges—opportunities afforded by our democratic system of government and challenges thrown up by the tasks of national reconstruction. I have no doubt that, with faith in our cause and with determination in our efforts, we shall prove equal to the great challenges and responsibilities that lie ahead.

● The first time I read an excellent book, it is to me just as if I had gained a new friend: when I read over a book I have perused before, it resembles the meeting with an old one.

—Goldsmith

making the millions literate

MORE THAN HALF A CENTURY ago Alfred Marshal stated in his *Principles of Economics*, "No change would conduce so much to a rapid increase of material wealth as an improvement in our schools, and especially those of the middle grades, provided it be combined with an extensive system of scholarship, which will enable the clever son of a working man to rise gradually from school to school till he has the best technical and practical education which the age can give." The events all over the world since this statement have proved beyond doubt that this is the secret of all material progress. Anyone can show a practically perfect correlation between the ratio of literacy and economic development. The Unesco has conducted several surveys in all parts of the world and have reported remarkable rank order between the level of education and economic development. It is now universally accepted that education has been the precursor of rapid and firm advancement of nations. No wonder, therefore, that the framers of our Constitution envisaged in Article 45 universal, free and compulsory education for all children between the ages of six and fourteen years. Our Constitution contemplated that this task should be accomplished within ten years of the adoption of the Constitution.

The Planning Commission and the Government of India piously hoped and secretly prayed that all State governments would take necessary steps for the achievement of this target of universal education. Perhaps their hands were full and their minds were preoccupied with numerous schemes of national development. The top-most leaders and educational administrators derived solace in the fact that education was a "State Subject" and the Government of

India need not interfere. But this complacency was seriously disturbed when the achievements of the First Five-Year Plan were reviewed by the nation. The progress of primary education was lamentable! The directive of the Constitution was that universal and free education should be provided within ten years. No jugglery of figures could prove any progress in the First Five-Year Plan. To add to the confusion, several million new babies were born while the Constitution was being adopted and the First Five-Year Plan was being implemented with all devotion and patriotism. What should be done to improve matters during the Second Five-Year Plan? This question haunted the leading men in the Planning Commission and the Union Ministry of Education. They were worried and depressed. The Planning Commission and the Working Groups debated the question. The State Education Ministers met and discussed. The Central Advisory Board of Education expressed serious concern in its annual meetings. The nation frowned and expressed indignation. How could the directive of the Constitution be honoured? It was unpatriotic to accept defeat or suggest modifications in the targets.

Shifting the Target

Soon after the Second Five-Year Plan gathered momentum. Maulana Azad declared in one of the annual meetings of the Central Advisory Board of Education at New Delhi that the target of universal and free education for the children of six to fourteen years could not be achieved in any foreseeable future. He submitted the details of a scheme which contemplated the achievement of this target for the children of *six to eleven years by the end of the Third Five-Year Plan*. The nation was

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dismayed. What kind of progress was this? Fifteen years instead of ten and six to eleven age-group instead of six to fourteen! But as Bapu used to say "You can fool God, not arithmetic." It was realistic planning. The Planning Commission had discussed and agreed that nothing better could be done under the circumstances. The Central Advisory Board of Education urged the State Education Ministers to work out their plans in the light of the new targets.

A keen observer would notice that the Union Ministry of Education has been jolted out of its complacency. This is not only a remarkable achievement of the Second Five-Year Plan but a very good sign for future progress. Forgetting the slogan of "education being a State subject" the Union Education Ministry and the Planning Commission have now assumed full responsibility for the literacy of the teeming millions of India. They have acquired a realistic and business-like attitude with regard to Primary education. This healthy attitude has inspired faith in the nation and all the State

Departments of Education are buzzing with activity round-the-clock. There is a race to achieve the target of universal education for all children of six to eleven years during the Third Five-Year Plan. Hundreds of Training Institutions are being started. Madhya Pradesh alone opened 23 Basic Training Colleges in October 1959 and 27 in October 1960.

Educational Survey

The Union Ministry of Education picked up the best men in the country to conduct an Educational Survey so that all planning hereafter may be based on scientific lines and correct data instead of on a plane of wishful thinking. This Educational Survey is a veritable achievement. The appointments of an Adviser on Primary Education and a new Joint-Secretary for Primary education would convince the most sceptical, that Government of India now means business with regard to Primary education. The Educational Survey has revealed the following :—

No.	State	No. of schools proposed by the Educational Survey	No. of schools on 31st March 1957	No. of New Primary Schools needed
1.	Andhra Pradesh	27,849	22,708	5,141
2.	Assam	14,192	11,001	3,191
3.	Bihar	37,261	26,351	10,910
4.	Bombay	49,300	40,528	8,772
5.	Jammu & Kashmir	2,825	1,884	941
6.	Kerala	7,938	5,751	2,187
7.	Madhya Pradesh	35,718	20,824	14,894
8.	Madras	19,832	17,979	1,853
9.	Mysore	21,632	17,875	3,757
10.	Orissa	21,370	15,032	6,338
11.	Punjab	12,708	11,229	1,479
12.	Rajasthan	17,773	8,933	8,840
13.	Uttar Pradesh	59,637	26,168	33,469
14.	Delhi	220	190	30
15.	Himachal Pradesh	1,931	1,004	927
16.	Manipur	862	671	191
17.	Tripura	1,262	895	367
TOTAL		3,32,311	2,29,023	1,03,288

The above statistics show that the magnitude of task varies greatly from State to State. The Government of India must provide special assistance to the less advanced States if equality of opportunity is to be provided for the whole country. If the States are left to their own resources, the target of universal primary education cannot be achieved in the foreseeable future. And mark you, it is not money alone. There are exceedingly important sociological and administrative reasons delaying the 100 per cent achievement of Universal education in India. The six less advanced States of Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh have stated that it is not possible to enrol 100% of *girls* of the age-group six to eleven years in rural areas. The realistic target therefore for these States has been accepted as 90% of boys and 50% of girls. It has also been accepted that universal compulsory education cannot be introduced during the Third Five-Year Plan amongst the Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes, other Backward Communities and in the Union Territories.

Colossal Task

The Central Working Group on Education took the above considerations into account and proposed an overall target of 90% for boys and girls in the advanced States and a target of 90% boys and 50% girls for the less advanced States. This actually means a target of 81% for the country as a whole. If this is achieved in the Third Five-Year Plan, a gap of 19% will be carried over to the Fourth Five-Year Plan. But let us not be too sure of what we are aiming at. For achieving this target of 81% we have to enrol 180 lakhs of children in the age-group six to eleven years during the Third Five-Year Plan which means enrolling 36 lakhs of children every year. This achievement will not be easy when we see that during the First Five-Year Plan a total of 60 lakhs children *i.e.* 12 lakhs per year were enrolled; and during the Second Five-Year Plan the enrolment is expected to go up to 85 lakhs *i.e.* 17 lakhs

per year. So the simple conclusion is that for achieving the target of 81% universal education for the age-group six to eleven years during the Third Five-Year Plan, we must enrol 36 lakhs of children every year. Can it be done? The task is staggering but it can be done if all the resources and energies of all the people are exploited and the task is undertaken with all the devotion and determination of which we are capable. The inescapable conclusion is that if this target is to be achieved, the procedures and practices of the First and Second Five-Year Plans have to be abandoned; new and effective methods have to be applied. As Shri J.P. Naik has rightly observed, "If Primary education is to develop adequately during the Third Five-Year Plan, intensive efforts will have to be made to assist the backward States. The major efforts in the field will have to be made by the States themselves by mobilising community support to the full and by allocating larger funds from their own revenues. But the Centre also will have to assist them liberally to enable them to clear up their backlogs accumulated through a century or more of neglect."

Education of Girls and Backward Classes

No matter what is done for promoting Universal education, millions of *girls* and more millions of *backward classes* in India will baffle every worker in the field of education for several years. Prejudices and taboos can be abolished only with patience and caution. Most of the Tribes live in forests and inaccessible areas. Teachers from other parts of the country are not prepared to work among Tribals. The vast majority of tribal languages have no script and no literature. So text-books cannot be prepared. Public opinion among the tribal people is not willing to accept education on a compulsory basis. Satisfactory solutions will have to be found for all these problems before the dream of universal education can be realised.

With regard to the promotion of girls' education, Publication No. 408 of the Union Ministry of Education is a valuable document. It is the Report of the National

Committee on Women's Education published in 1959. The discerning reader of this Report is impressed with the educational wisdom and insight of the Committee. There have been abundant educational reports in free India. Some of them are remarkable for the statement of problems only while others are remarkable for the recommended solutions only. The Report on women's education is remarkable for the analysis of its problems as well as the recommended solutions. And in this it surpasses all the reports published in free India, so far. Women have proved that they are shrewder and more practical than men. The stupendous problem of girls' education in India has been squarely faced for the first time in our long history and the most practical solutions have been suggested. This Report has stated that in 1956-57 the population of India was 39.19 crores. It is expected to reach 43 crores by 1965-66. Taking the female population as 50 per cent and the number of children in the age-group of 6 to 11 at 12.5 per cent, we shall have to provide for about 2.69 crores of girls in primary schools by 1965-66. It was calculated in 1956-57 that the total enrolment of girls in the whole country was 80 lakhs in primary classes. Thus it is obvious that 1.89 crores of girls have to be enrolled in primary classes by the end of the Third Five-Year Plan. If the efforts of the Second and Third Five-Year Plans are pooled, the conclusion is that 21 lakhs of girls should be enrolled annually. The magnitude of this task is seen only when it is stated that between 1959-60 and 1956-57 the enrolment of girls in primary schools has been only 4.5 lakhs per annum. And this has been our best performance during the last hundred years! So now we have to

improve upon our best performance and this improvement has to be nearly five times better!!

It is necessary to recall here the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the U.N. General Assembly in 1948 which contemplates that "Every one has the right to education. Education shall be free at least in the Elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education should be compulsory". [Article 26(i)]. This target of universal education has been realised in some countries of the world almost a century ago. By now universal and compulsory education has been provided for a period of seven years in every country in the West. U.S.A. has provided for eleven years of compulsory universal education and efforts are being made to extend this period to thirteen years which would include secondary education plus two years of college education. In Asia no country except Japan has reached the target of universal compulsory education. The Unesco is aware of the grave dangers of illiteracy in the Asian region and is anxious to provide all help in the promotion of Universal compulsory education for the teeming millions in Asian countries. The Unesco had convened a Conference of educationists at Karachi in January 1959. This Conference was attended by Education Ministers and educational administrators of almost all Asian countries. The Report of this Conference is a valuable document and must be studied by everyone interested in universal compulsory education. This Conference has worked out that an amount of 10,000 crores of rupees and a period of 35 years would be required for achieving the target of universal compulsory education in all Asian countries.

• What is harder than rock, or softer than water? Yet soft water hollows out hard rock. Only persevere.

—Ovid

planning education for leadership

Democracy and Leadership Training

LEADERSHIP IN THE PAST was the privilege of the few, based mainly upon their social and economic status. The present-day democratic system requires a wide diffusion of power and responsibility and a widespread programme of training in leadership, so that society does not get into the grip of a handful of power-seeking individuals. A concerted attempt to pull people up to stand on their own feet is especially important in our country where centuries of foreign rule have sapped the capacity of the people to take initiative in handling their personal and social affairs. The decision of the country to decentralise authority, already implemented in many states, urgently requires that people be trained to assume leadership in various walks of life. For, as Eric James has pointed out, a "high level of leadership is required for a satisfactory devolution of power and that nothing leads more surely to an undue centralisation of authority than a lack of suitable leaders". Since in a democratic set up there has to be widespread diffusion of authority among the people, leaders at various levels need to be recruited from various sections of the people. This "recruitment" of leaders from various sections is "attainable only if the educational system is of such a kind that it can recognise and develop the characteristics of leadership; it is only by such an education that the limitations of the social economic and cultural backgrounds of the individual can be transcended

What is Leadership?

It is very difficult to define leadership. To a certain extent it can be defined in

terms of leadership behaviour. Edgar L. Morphet and others, in their book "Educational Administration", define it as follows :

"Briefly any person provides leadership for a group when he : (i) helps a group to define tasks, goals and purposes (ii) helps a group to achieve its task, goals and purposes and (iii) helps to maintain the group by assisting in providing for group and individual needs."

In the U.S.A. considerable research has been conducted to determine the qualities essential for assuming the role of leadership. In 1948, for instance, Stogdill surveyed about 124 studies of personality factors associated with leadership and found that in about 15 studies a person surpassed the other members of his group in intelligence, scholarship, sense of responsibility, industry and social participation and socio-economic status; in about 10 studies he found that the individual occupying a position of leadership measured above the average person in sociability, initiative, persistence, how to get things done, self-confidence, alertness to and insight into situations, cooperativeness, popularity, adaptability and verbal facility. Robert B. Myers also studies the problem and his list of qualities associated with leadership is in agreement with the list of Stogdill. It may be interesting to note that it has been found that the relationship of intelligence to leadership is very low; the correlation coefficient being about .28 as found out by Stogdill. Since "personality traits identified as being related to leadership are acquired traits and as such are subject to modification by training and experience", education has a significant task to perform in the training of people for

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assuming leadership in the various walks of national life.

Levels of Leadership

Leadership is of various levels. It can be roughly classified as being of three levels viz. leadership at the highest level, at the intermediate level and at the lowest level. Society requires persons who can do higher planning and lay down policies. They have usually very high educational and technical qualifications and possess intelligence of a superior order. Below them are those who possess technical skills of a lower order and have the capacity to assume responsibility for implementing the decisions that have been arrived at. They, because of their knowledge and skill, provide leadership to the local communities in organising themselves to carry through the various projects decided upon. The Secondary Education Commission felt that the role of the secondary school was to train students who "should be able to enter various walks of life and fill the role of, what may be called, leadership at the intermediate level". "The special function of the secondary school in this context" states the Report of the Secondary Education Commission, "is to train persons who will be able to assume the responsibility of leadership—in the social, political, industrial or cultural fields—in their own small groups or communities or localities". The content, methods and other programmes of our secondary schools need to be appraised from the point of view of how far they help in the recognition and training of the future leaders of the country. In this article an attempt has been made to indicate what is being done to improve secondary education in the country from the point of view of making available to the country a larger number of leaders of the intermediate category and to make some suggestions for further improvement.

Selection of Students

The first problem that needs to be tackled in this regard is that of selecting the right type of students for secondary edu-

cation. Training can be of no use unless those who are fit to receive training are selected with proper care. At present 50 to 55 per cent of those who appear in the Matriculation or equivalent examinations fail. There would thus appear, *prima facie*, a strong case for restricting admissions to secondary schools. There are, however, good reasons for not doing so. The child at that age is just opening up and it is not possible to judge his potentiality at that stage. Secondly, the backward sections of the community, because of their family background, cannot fairly compete at that age with their more favourably placed fellows. Thirdly, the standards of teaching in various schools are so different that a boy from a poor school will be at a grave disadvantage through no fault of his. Fourthly, our standards of teaching are so poor and our examination system so defective that failure in the examination is no proof of a child's inherent incapacity to profit by secondary education. Fifthly, only 11.4 per cent of children of the age-group 14-17 would be in school in 1960-61, whereas the tendency in various advanced countries of the world is to provide secondary education for all children.

The problem of 'selection' here is really to bring in clever children, who on account of their poverty are today kept out. Of 100 children who join class I, only 33 reach class V and only 19 reach class VIII. Of those who are enrolled in class VIII only 75 to 78% reach class IX. The situation calls for the institution of a large number of scholarships at the secondary stage. The exact provision made for scholarships in the Third Plan, at this stage is not yet known but it is not likely to be enough. It is, however, hoped that it would be possible for the country to make adequate provision in future Plans.

Diversification of Courses

Then there is the question of providing to the child a programme of studies for which he is best suited by his intelligence and aptitude. Otherwise, he generally does

not acquire the degree of mastery over his subject which is essential for commanding a position of leadership in his group or community. This calls for providing a variety of courses at the secondary stage of education. This is necessary also from the point of view of the country's requirements of trained personnel of the intermediate category. Otherwise, the phenomenon of abundant educated manpower on the one hand and shortage of suitably trained personnel on the other will continue. The employment position for ordinary matriculates, appears to be getting worse from year to year. As against 1.72 lakh matriculates on the live register of the employment exchanges in March 1956 their number increased to 2.86 lakhs in March 1959. And if, as has been pointed out by National Sample Study No. 8 on "Urban Unemployment" it is remembered that only 45% of the matriculates were registered at the exchanges in September, 1953, the problem assumes still larger dimensions. The chief reason for this situation appears to be the unemployability of the average matriculate, for considerable shortages were experienced in respect of various categories of personnel in the field of community development, health, social welfare etc. requiring matriculation plus some professional training. In the Third Plan about 12 lakh people with matriculation and some professional training are estimated to be required. It is necessary that a closer liaison is established between secondary schools and the employing agencies.

Diversification of courses was started towards the end of the first Plan. By the end of the current Plan there will be 1,550 Multi-purpose Schools out of 14,000 high/higher secondary schools. But due to the shortage of teachers for practical subjects like technology, agriculture, etc. and inadequate equipment, these schools have not been functioning satisfactorily. It is, therefore, planned to consolidate the existing position in the Third Plan. It has been decided to set up four Regional Training Institutes for meeting the shortage of trained teachers in various fields.

Educational and Vocational Guidance

The success of the diversified courses provided at the secondary stage depends, to a large extent, on the provision of educational and vocational guidance to the students. If the selection of the courses is done haphazardly, more on the basis of prestige that a particular course has in the eyes of the parents rather than on the basis of a student's capacity and aptitude, no positive results can be achieved. Work in this regard started towards the end of the First Plan. By the end of the Second Plan there will be an Educational and Vocational Guidance Bureau at the Centre and similar bureaus in most of the States. Their work, however, has not yet effectively reached the schools. During the Third Plan it is proposed to make good this deficiency by the appointment of properly trained counsellors and career masters in schools. The bureaus will also be further strengthened.

A Stage Complete by Itself

The Secondary Education Commission have emphasised the need of making the secondary stage of education "as a stage complete in itself with its own ends and special purposes". With a view to achieving this it was decided to raise the 10-year secondary school to an 11-year higher secondary school so as to cover the expanded syllabus required for the purpose adequately. The progress, however, in converting the existing high schools into higher secondary schools has been slow. As against the total number of about 14,000 high/higher secondary schools likely to exist in the country by the end of the Second Plan the number of higher secondary schools would be only about 3,000 or about 21% of the total number. In the Third Plan it is proposed to have 50 per cent of all secondary schools of the higher secondary pattern. The main difficulty in speeding up this reform further is the dearth of suitable teachers and resources. States are taking different steps to make good this deficiency in various ways.

Methods of Teaching

For the development of qualities of leadership such as resourcefulness and ability to inspire confidence etc. the methods of teaching are as, if not more, important as the content of the courses. Qualities of leadership can be developed not by sermonising but by providing actual opportunities for their exercise and growth. As has been stated by the Secondary Education Commission: "Discipline or co-operation for instance, cannot be instilled into students through lectures or exhortations; they can become a part of the individual's normal technique of life only when he has been given numerous opportunities of participating in freely accepted projects and activities in which discipline and cooperation are constantly in demand for achieving the ends in view." Basic education, which is to be our pattern of education at the elementary stage centres round craft, community living and the natural environment. Knowledge is imparted in response to the attempt of the child to understand the environment and handle these activities. As such the basic education technique is ideally suited to the building up of a vital and alert personality assuming various responsibilities in an active group or community. The relevance of this method to the secondary stage should be an urgent problem for investigation at the secondary stage.

Cooperative Community Living

The general atmosphere in a school has much to contribute to the development of desirable qualities among the students. If the administration is authoritarian there is hardly any scope for the exercise of individual initiative on the part of either the staff or the students of the school. In a democratically constituted community individual dignity is respected and free scope is afforded for the exercise of individual responsibility. Further, democratic functioning demands cooperation and disciplined behaviour among the members of a group. It is, therefore, desirable that our schools

are organised on democratic lines, where every student gets a chance for shouldering responsibility. Self-government should be introduced in schools and students entrusted with the organisation of different school activities, such as the publication of the school magazine, organisation of sports, consideration of some cases of indiscipline and breach of school rules, decoration of the school etc. For this purpose, students would need to be organised in small groups and definite activities assigned to them. The secondary school as visualised by the Secondary Education Commission, was to be a community where "students will (would) be given full freedom to organise functions, to conduct many of the school activities through their own committees and even to deal with certain types of disciplinary cases".

Problem of Gifted Children

Another aspect of the problem of training for leadership is the question of detecting the specially gifted and providing them with education of the type for which they are mentally equipped. Of late in the U.S.A. and England there has been a growing concern for the education of the gifted students and it has been asserted that our concern with the needs of the average students has led to the neglect of the potential genius. It is also asserted that since the latter does not receive a treatment that his intellectual capacity really deserves and since he is generally made to mark time till the average student of the group has completed a particular unit of course, there is a greater possibility of his manifesting undesirable behaviour patterns. The need for detecting talented students fairly early and providing them with stimulating programmes—intellectual and otherwise—has been emphasised. Controversy, however, seems to revolve round how to provide special programmes for them. There are those who state that special schools for them should be set up, while, on the other hand, there are others who oppose this on social and educational grounds. The three types of secondary

schools in England, of which Grammar Schools are supposed to meet the needs of the intellectually gifted, do not seem to have satisfied all. There is an increasing trend to open comprehensive schools, where the needs of the students with varying intelligence, aptitudes and interests are met. For arranging education commensurate

with the actual capacity of the child, students of a class or subject are distributed into three streams, viz., A, B and C. In India, however, the problem has not as yet been seriously studied. It will however have to be done and adequate arrangements will have to be made to detect and train the specially gifted.

DO YOU KNOW?

- About 2,52,400 *additional* women teachers would be required at the primary stage during the Third Plan.
- The Central Bureaus of Textbook Research and Educational and Vocational Guidance have been merged into the Central Institute of Education, Delhi, with effect from 1st November, 1960.
- With a view to ensuring economic security for teachers after retirement, the Directorate of Education, Delhi, has introduced a scheme under which the teachers can take out insurance policies.
- Out of 15,000 candidates who appeared for the M.A. Examination in 1959 from 29 universities, some 12,000 passed. Four per cent of the successful candidates secured the first division and 34 per cent the second division and as many as 62 per cent passed in the third division.

expansion of women's education under the third plan

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL for Women's Education, which has been set up by the Government to advise them on matters relating to the education of girls and women, at its first meeting held in October, 1959, considered in detail the question of reducing the glaring disparity that exists between the education of girls and boys, during the Third Five-Year Plan in the light of the recommendations made to the Government by the National Committee on Women's Education. This was at the time when the Central and State Governments were engaged in the formulation of their proposals for the Third Five-Year Plan and it was, therefore, appropriate, that the Council should make their proposals for consideration of the Government regarding

- (i) priority to be accorded to schemes for promotion of girls and women's education in the Third Plan,
- (ii) creation of suitable machinery to deal with the problem of education of girls and women,
- (iii) feasible targets to be aimed at for the enrolment of girls at the various stages of education,
- (vi) specific allocation of funds and special programme for the education of girls and women,
- (v) need for locating the special programme in the centrally sponsored sector, and

- (vi) need for educating public opinion in favour of girls' education.

The expansion of Women's Education in the Third Plan is, therefore, based on the decisions and the action taken on the above proposals of the National Council. They are explained in some detail in the following paragraphs.

High Priority

The National Committee on Women's Education and the National Council have recommended that, in view of its extreme backwardness "the education of girls and women should be regarded as a special problem for some years to come; that a bold and determined effort should be made to face its difficulties and magnitude and that the existing gap be closed in as short a time as possible." They have further recommended that a very high priority should be given to schemes prepared from this point of view.

The Government of India and almost all the State Governments/Administrations have accepted this recommendation in principle.

Suitable Machinery

Any scheme of development will produce the desired results only if it is administered with imagination, efficiency and a sense of involvement. It becomes workable only if it is planned realistically and its policies laid down clearly. Its working details have to be carefully drawn up taking into account the real position and actual needs. The machinery in charge of any scheme, therefore, has to be adequate and suitable. The National Committee's proposal

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regarding suitable machinery for this sector is :

- (i) A National Council for guidance, leadership and advice; and
- (ii) a Unit under a Joint Educational Adviser for administration at the Centre.
- (iii) State Councils for guidance, leadership and advice at the State level; and
- (iv) Joint/Deputy Women Directors to be in charge of girls and Women's Education in the States.

The Ministry of Education has already set up the National Council to advise the Government on policies, priorities and programmes for girls and women's education and have also established a Unit to deal with the issues arising out of the programmes formulated for promoting women's Education and to expedite action in the light of Government decisions. The Ministry has recommended to the States a similar machinery.

All the States except Madras, Kerala and Andhra have set up or decided to set up State Councils to advise them on matters relating to Women's Education and all except Madras and Kerala have already appointed Women Deputy Directors to be put in charge of Girls Education. The new States of Maharashtra and Gujarat have yet to take a decision in this respect.

Targets for Enrolment

The magnitude of the problem will be revealed when we take into account the likely achievement in respect of the enrolment of girls by the end of the Second Plan period. By 1960-61 at the primary stage 107 lakhs of girls or 42.7% as against 224 lakhs of boys or 84.9% are expected to be in school. By 1965-66 the number of non-attending girls is expected to be 193 lakhs. Under the circumstances the National Council felt that it would not be

feasible nor possible to enrol all these girls by 1965-66. The proposal was revised, therefore, to enrol at least 50% of girls in the States of Jammu & Kashmir, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh and 90% in the remaining States/Administrations. Even then the additional number of girls to be brought into school will be about 109 lakhs which will mean more than trebling the present rate of enrolment of girls.

At the middle stage, the enrolment position in 1960-61 is expected to be 16 lakhs of girls or 8.3% as against 54 lakhs of boys or 34.3%. The Council has suggested that the enrolment of girls should be increased to at least half that of boys by 1965-66.

The proposal made in furtherance of this suggestion is a minimum enrolment of 12.5% of girls in the States of Jammu & Kashmir, Rajasthan, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh and a minimum enrolment of 25% in the remaining States/Administration as against the overall national target of 30% at this stage. Even then the additional number of girls to be brought into school would be about 20 lakhs which will mean more than doubling the present rate of enrolment of girls.

As for the secondary stage, the enrolment in 1960-61 is expected to be 5.5 lakhs of girls or 4.2% as against 23.9 lakhs of boys or 18%. The Council has suggested that it would be reasonable to increase the enrolment of girls to at least one-third that of boys by 1965-66. The proposal made in this connection is to aim at 5% of girls in the States of Jammu & Kashmir, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh and 10% in the remaining States/Administrations as against the overall national target of 15% at this stage. Even then the additional number of girls to be brought into school would be about 6 lakhs which will mean doubling the present rate of enrolment of girls.

Regarding University and Adult stages, no specific targets have been suggested.

The recommendation is only to increase the enrolment of girls as largely as feasible at the University stage and for adult women to organise one or two condensed courses in as many blocks as possible.

These suggestions have been broadly accepted by the Government and the States/Administrations have been asked to finalise their plans accordingly.

Specific Allocation and Special Programme

The attainment of these targets presents a variety of problems and difficulties of varying magnitude in the different States/Administrations. In the State of Kerala, the proposed targets present no problem. In Assam, Madras, Maharashtra, Gujarat and West Bengal the present rate of enrolment has to be increased by 1.3 to 2.3 times and may not be very difficult. But the increase has to be three times or more in Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and Punjab; about four times or more in Jammu and Kashmir, Rajasthan and Orissa; about six times or more in Bihar, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh. Besides, in all States/Administrations, whether educationally advanced or not, there are backward areas or pockets. The backwardness in educational progress again is much greater in some States than in others—wide disparities exist between one State and another. *All this indicates that the proposed targets for the Third Plan cannot be achieved in the normal course and through such programmes as we have been able to organise so far in the First and Second Plans.* It will be obvious that special measures have to be taken without any qualms as to discrimination and attention directed to what may be termed weak spots, that is the areas of backwardness.

The National Council, therefore, reiterated the suggestion of the National Committee that there should be a special programme for the expansion of girls only, which would be over and above the general programme meant for both boys and girls.

The Government have accepted this suggestion and have asked the State Governments/Administrations to prepare their plans accordingly. The *general programme* will include all measures for developing education in the normal way beneficial to both boys and girls. It would include the cost on account of all teachers—men and women—teacher training, school buildings, equipment and contingencies and other recurring expenditure such as cost of inspection, direction and administration and inducements common to both boys and girls alike.

On the other hand, the *special programme* will include only such of the schemes as are meant to overcome the peculiar difficulties that stand in the way of the education of girls and to remove the various disabilities from which they suffer. The measures proposed under this programme are intended to meet the difficulties of girls due to socio-economic conditions, lack of sufficient number of women teachers, lack of proper school facilities, absence of hostel facilities etc., which adversely affect their going to school. They will, primarily be applicable to such areas where the enrolment position is most unsatisfactory. This programme will thus provide additional inducements only for girls over and above the general facilities which they would share with the boys. It will, therefore, serve as a complement to general programme.

The National Council with the help of an expert sub-committee including representatives of the Ministry of Education and the Planning Commission finalised details of the content of a Rs. 100 crore special programme to be taken up in the Third Five-Year Plan for promoting girls' education at all stages and submitted it for the consideration of the Government of India.

The Working Group on Education considered this programme and accepted the recommendation made by the Council. Accordingly a sum of Rs. 94.85 crores was

provided in the total educational plan of Rs. 980 crores. But as the total allocation was cut down to Rs. 370 crores, it was felt that on the basis of proportionate reduction the education of girls would get about Rs. 36 crores in consideration of the high priority accorded to this programme by the Government. But unfortunately the outlay suggested is only Rs. 17 crores for the elementary, secondary and university stages. The National Council and the Education Panel of the Planning Commission have made strong representations to the Planning Commission to increase the allocations appreciably.

Special Schemes

In the meanwhile, the Ministry of Education, on the basis of the special programme suggested, has proposed the following schemes to be taken up for implementation during 1961-66 :

1. Special programme for expansion of girls' education and training of women teachers at the elementary stage for an outlay of Rs. 11 crores.
2. Special programme for expansion of girls' education at the secondary stage for an outlay of Rs. 5 crores.
3. Establishment of National Institutes for Higher Education and Training of Women, the estimated cost being Rs. 1 crore.
4. Scheme to provide financial assistance for putting up buildings for setting up industrial training Centres at an estimated cost of Rs. 58.80 lakhs.

The special schemes at the elementary and secondary stages are intended to step up the enrolment of girls to school. They include schemes like :

1. Construction of quarters for women teachers.
2. Village allowance to women teachers working in rural areas.

3. Appointment of school mothers.
4. Special amenities like sanitary blocks etc. for girls in co-educational schools.
5. Establishment of hostels for girls from rural areas.
6. Attendance scholarships, prizes etc. to girls and grant of clothing.
7. Free or subsidised transport for girls where hostel facilities do not exist.
8. Scholarships and stipends to girls.
9. Educating public opinion in favour of girls education.

Further, the State Governments are at liberty to select any one or more of these schemes or suggest new ones according to local needs.

The proposal for establishing a National Institute for higher education and training of women needs special mention. It has been included with the object of training women to positions of high level leadership and responsibility in various walks of life. A committee under the Chairmanship of Mrs. Indira Gandhi has been proposed for working out details of this scheme.

The fourth scheme is intended to assist voluntary organisations for constructing buildings for the establishment of industrial training centres to provide training facilities for women in those fields where women personnel are needed. This is for supplementing the Ministry of Labour's scheme for establishing about two such centres in each State.

Besides the above, the University Grants Commission has decided to earmark a sum of Rs. 2 crores for construction of hostels for girls in colleges. The Central Social Welfare Board has also set apart a sum of Rs. 2 crores for construction of hostels for girls in colleges. The Central Social Welfare Board has also set apart a sum of Rs. 3 crores for condensed educational courses for adult women. The

Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs is also likely to make provision up to Rs. 5 crores for establishing Junior Technical Schools/Polytechnics for girls.

The effects of lower allocations, however, can be easily envisaged. Unless vigorous measures are taken to bridge the gap between the education of boys and girls, the disparities will not be reduced to an appreciable extent within a reasonable period. If sufficient priority is not given to these special programmes and if adequate funds are not provided for the purpose, the pace at which this gap is being bridged which is already slow will be slowed down further. The women personnel required for the implementation of various plan schemes will also not be available and ultimately the plan itself will suffer to that extent.

The provision of special allocations and formulation of special schemes are not enough to enable States taking up and implementing this programme. The Council have therefore very strongly pleaded that the Government of India should sponsor

this programme and give assistance to the States on a non-matching basis as in the Second Plan scheme for "Expansion of girls' education and training of women teachers". Such a step will ensure that in the context of meagre resources, schemes under this programme will not be driven to the background and funds diverted, owing to the pressure of other demands.

Educating Public Opinion

The Council has attached much importance to this aspect in view of the little appreciation there is by parents specially in the rural areas of the need for educating girls. There is, therefore, great need for continuous and intensive propaganda for educating public opinion in favour of educating girls.

With the provision of better school facilities for expanding girls education together with adequate measures for overcoming their special difficulties and the creation of a strong public opinion in favour of women's education, it should be possible to achieve tangible results in the course of the Third Plan.

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Plan Coordination

The Scheme of Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations was revised. The State Governments were requested to examine proposals in the light of the revised scheme.

With a view to finalising the estimated outlays of educational schemes to be included in the Central Sector of the Third Five-Year Plan, two meetings on July 21 and August 3, 1960 were held with the representatives of the Planning Commission. Though no final decisions were taken, considerable progress was made in preparing a tentative list of schemes to be included in the Central Plan.

The Working Group on Education held discussions on the Draft Third Five-Year Plans of Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Pondicherry, Tripura, Manipur, Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindive Islands, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh and recommended an outlay of Rs. 12.82 crores, Rs. 2.39 crores, Rs. 1.42 crores, Rs. 2.31 crores, Rs. 1.11 crores, Rs. 0.18 crores, Rs. 20.90 crores and Rs. 48.50 crores respectively.

ELEMENTARY AND BASIC EDUCATION

National Institute of Basic Education

(i) Publications

The publication 'Administration of Basic Education' was released from the press and distributed.

(ii) Organisation of a Workshop

A two-week workshop of the staff of the Institute and the Senior Basic School, Chhatarpur was organised in the Institute in July, 1960 to guide the teachers in preparing detailed work plan.

(iii) Organisation of a Conference

A one-week conference of the Headmasters and supervisory staff of the 22 model Basic schools of Delhi was organised in September, 1960, with a view to making the participants understand how they could make their school a 'model' institution.

(iv) Dr. Stephen M. Corey of the Columbia University joined the institute as T.C.M. Expert.

Basic Education Week

A 'Basic Education Week' highlighting the salient features of Basic Education is being celebrated by the States, Union Territories and the Union Government for the last three years. The last day of the week coincides with the Republic Day on 26th January every year. The celebrations include several items such as talks, discussions, seminars, exhibitions, symposia, film shows etc. It is proposed that the 'Week' should be celebrated this year too in a befitting manner.

This time the week falls on the eve of the introduction of the scheme of free and compulsory primary education throughout

the country. It is proposed that the celebration should also include the prominent features of this scheme.

The State Governments and Union Territories have been requested to make necessary arrangements in this connection. Arrangements are also being made with the All India Radio to broadcast talks, discussions etc.

Compulsory Primary Education Programme

During the quarter under report administrative approvals were issued to four State Governments for a total sum of Rs. 63,40,000 under the programme of providing free and compulsory primary education/expansion of teacher-training facilities during 1960-61.

On 21st September, 1960, the President accorded his assent to the Delhi Primary Education Act, 1960 as passed by both the Houses of Parliament. The Act has been published in the Gazette of India Extraordinary Part II, Section I, dated 22nd September, 1960 and has come into force with effect from October 2, 1960, the birth anniversary of Mahatma Gandhi.

The Government of Andhra have drafted a Bill for the introduction of compulsory primary education in the State.

Relief to Educated Unemployed

Under the scheme of Relief to Educated Unemployed and Expansion of Primary Education it has been decided to increase the total number of teachers for allotment to States by 10,000. As a result of this increase the total number of teachers available for appointment has risen from 60,000 to 70,000.

Improving Science-Teaching in Elementary Schools

Under the Centrally Sponsored Scheme of Improving Science Teaching in Elementary schools, administrative approval for Rs. 10,000, Rs. 7,904 and Rs. 7,700 has been issued to the Governments of Punjab, Madras and Kerala respectively.

Production of Literature for Children and Teachers

A Central Scheme for the Production of Literature for Children and Teachers is proposed to be included in the Third Plan with a total provision of Rs. 38.0 lakhs. The following Sub-schemes are proposed to be included in this Scheme :

- (i) Continuation of the annual competition for Children's Books.
- (ii) Assistance to Children Book Trust.
- (iii) Organisation of Sahitya Rachanayalas.
- (iv) Production of Children's Books on an all-India basis.

A Centrally Sponsored Scheme—"Production of Literature for Children and Teachers", is also proposed to be included in the Third Plan with a total provision of Rs. 32.0 lakhs. Under this Scheme it is proposed to give a grant-in-aid of Rs. 2 lakhs to each State on a 100 per cent basis for the purpose of producing or encouraging the production of literature for children and teachers in the regional languages.

A sum of Rs. 2 lakhs will be reserved for work in the Union Territories.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION

National Council for Women's Education

The Second Meeting of the National Council for Women's Education was held on 5th and 6th August, 1960 to consider the programme for the education of girls and women in the light of reduced allocations. The recommendations made by the Council are under consideration.

Special Programme for the Education of Girls and Women in the Third Plan

On the recommendation of the National Council for Women's Education the Ministry of Education have proposed the following Centrally Sponsored Special Schemes for the education of girls and women for implementation during 1961-66 :—

Special Schemes for the Primary, Middle and Secondary Stages :

This scheme is intended to offer special inducements for girls for increasing their enrolment. Sub-schemes like attendance scholarships, and prizes, special amenities in the form of sanitary blocks in co-educational schools, free tuition to girls from rural areas, free and subsidised transport, grant of scholarships have been proposed under this scheme. The total plan outlay proposed is Rs. 11.25 crores.

Special Scheme for Increasing the Number of Women Teachers :

This scheme is intended to offer additional inducements exclusively for women for increasing the number of women teachers. Sub-schemes like quarters for women teachers in rural areas, village allowance for women teachers working in rural areas, appointment of school-mothers, pre-selection of girls and women to work as teachers have been proposed under this Scheme. The total plan outlay proposed is Rs. 8.75 crores.

Special Scheme for the Provision of Hostel Facilities in the Middle and Secondary Schools for Girls :

This scheme is intended to provide one such hostel in every District during the Third Five-Year Plan period. The total plan outlay proposed is Rs. 5 crores.

Scheme of Assistance to Voluntary Organisations for Construction of Buildings for Industrial and Vocational Training Centres for Women :

This scheme, that will be implemented in collaboration with the Ministry of Labour, intends to provide financial assistance for establishing one such centre in every State during 1961-66. The total plan outlay proposed is Rs. 58.80 lakhs.

Scheme for the Establishment of National Institutes for Higher Education and Training of Women :

This Institute will train women to positions of high level leadership and respon-

sibility in various walks of life. The total plan outlay proposed is 1 crore.

Expansion of Girls Education and Training of Women Teachers

Administrative approval has been issued to the following State Governments/Union Territories for the amounts indicated against each for the implementation of the Scheme during 1960-61:

	Rs.
Tripura	.. 24,000
Assam	.. 1,08,000
Orissa	.. 3,72,552
L. M. & A. Islands	.. 3,500
Madhya Pradesh	.. 5,68,000
Madras	.. 4,94,000

Proposals received from Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh are under examination while proposals from other States/Union Territories are awaited.

Hostels for Middle and Secondary Schools for Girls

Under the above scheme, a new Sub-scheme—provision of hostel facilities in the middle and secondary schools for girls—has been approved. The State Governments were asked to send five applications of institutions conducted by the State Government as well as by Voluntary Organisations. The maximum grant-in-aid that may be made available would be Rs. 1,500 per student subject to a maximum of a hundred girl students per hostel. Twenty-five per cent of the approved expenditure will be met by the voluntary organisations themselves. State Governments are exempted from this condition.

Applications have been received from the States of Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Mysore, West Bengal, Madras, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Punjab and Andhra Pradesh and are under examination.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

New York Herald Tribune Forum

The recommendations received from the State Governments were considered by the Central Selection Committee being set up to select a student for participation in this forum in the U.S.A. for a period of about three months, from January to March, 1961.

State Education Ministers Conference

A conference of the State Education Ministers was held at New Delhi on 4th and 5th November, 1960.

Promotion of Inter-State Understanding

It has been decided to hold the next rally of the Secondary School students at New Delhi from 22nd to 28th January, 1961.

Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

The following grants were sanctioned during the period under report :

Name of the Institution	Amount paid	Purpose of Grant
Raisina Bengali Higher Secondary School, New Delhi.	2,585	Continuation of Educational and Vocational Guidance Centre.
Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore.	11,648 (Fifth and final instalment)	Establishment of Home Science College.

Educational Delegations to and from India

A 20-member teacher/students delegation from Nepal is expected to visit India this year. A similar delegation is expected from Bhutan. The dates of the visits are under consideration.

25 students, from Sikkim will visit India for a month on a Bharat Darshan Tour.

Union Territories

Delhi

The Government of India have since taken decisions on those recommendations of the Aided Schools Enquiry Committee which had financial implications. The decisions taken are :

- (i) The quantum of recurring grant-in-aid paid to Government aided private schools in Delhi has been raised from 90% to 95% of the

deficit (approved recurring expenditure minus income from fees), with effect from 1st October, 1960.

- (ii) The grant-in-aid has been allowed on the post of Demonstrators in aided schools where science is taught in high and higher secondary classes. The grant would be admissible only in respect of one post of Demonstrator to be appointed in the scale of Rs. 80-220.
- (iii) The Government aided schools have been allowed leave reserves on the basis of 5% of the approved sanctioned strength of teachers in a School. If the sanctioned strength of the teachers is less than 20 but more than 10, one full-time leave reserve teacher will be sanctioned. In the case of high and higher secondary schools the leave reserve will be sanctioned in the scale of Rs. 68-170. In a high/higher

secondary school where the sanctioned strength justifies the appointment of more than one leave reserve the additional posts will be sanctioned in the scale of Rs. 68-170. These orders will take effect from 1st April, 1961.

- (iv) All the class IV staff in aided schools will be entitled to the provident fund benefit provided they are permanent. These orders will take effect from 1st October, 1960.

Himachal Pradesh

Sanction has been accorded to the continuance of the practice of awarding six merit scholarships for M.A./M.Sc. courses at the rate of Rs. 50 p.m.

Sanction of the President has been accorded to the grant of rent-free residential accommodation, or house rent in lieu thereof, at the rate of 10% of the basic pay to the Principals of Government Colleges in Chamba, Solan and Rampur and also to the Principal of the Post-Graduate Basic Training College. The concession already enjoyed by the Principals of Government Colleges at Mandi and Bilaspur will be continued.

Tripura

Sanction of the President has been accorded to the creation of a post of Head Librarian in the Bir Chandra Public Library, Agartala, in the scale of Rs. 250—20—650—25—750, with effect from the date it is actually filled till 28th February, 1961, in the first instance. The post has been classified as General Central Service Class II—Gazetted.

Manipur

Sanction has been accorded to the grant of stipends at the rate of Rs. 30 P.M. to unqualified teachers deputed for training, with retrospective effect from 1st August, 1959.

Sanction of the President has been accorded to the grant of the following

scales of pay to the Hindi Teachers after successful completion of the course of training for a period of one year, in the following manner :—

(1) Primary Schools :

- (i) A scale of Rs. 60—1—65 to non-matric teachers trained for teaching Hindi.
(ii) A scale of Rs. 55—1—70—2½—75 to matric teachers trained for teaching Hindi.

(2) Middle Schools :

A scale of Rs. 75—3—105—EB—4—125 for matric teachers trained for teaching Hindi.

Andamans and Nicobar Islands

Sanction has been accorded to the continuance of the post of Education Officer in the scale of Rs. 400—25—500—30—800 for a further period of one year, till 28th February, 1961. It has also been decided that special Andamans allowance will also be admissible to the mainland recruits appointed to this post, in addition to other usual allowances.

L.M. and A. Islands

Sanction has been accorded to the up-grading of the four posts of matric trained teachers in the scale of pay of Rs. 68—4—120—5—170 to the posts of graduate trained teachers in the scale of pay of Rs. 80—5—120—8—200—10—300 (with an initial pay of Rs. 120 for those who are B.A., B.T. or B.A., B.Ed.), with effect from the academic year 1960-61. The holders of the upgraded posts will work as Headmasters of Higher Elementary Schools.

The Administrator has been authorised to purchase gramophones with four records of the National Anthem at a cost not exceeding Rs. 500 for the use of the schools of the Islands.

Sanction has been accorded to the creation of posts of the teaching staff for the

new high school set up in the Ameni Islands, for a period of one year in the first instance.

It has been decided by the Government of India that the students who were having their courses of study on the mainland last year and wish to continue their studies on the mainland itself may be awarded scholarships eligible to them for one more year only.

Sanction of the President has been accorded to the payment of an allowance of Rs. 15 p.m. to teachers appointed in charge of the reading-room-cum-libraries for adults in the Islands provided they perform the extra work after normal school-working hours.

Proposal for Exempting Scheduled Tribe and Scheduled Caste Students from Payment of Examination Fees

It has been decided by the Government of India that a student who is placed in compartment in Board/University Examination may also be granted exemption from payment of examination fees for appearing at the next compartmental examination. A student who failed in the first attempt will not, however, be entitled to the concession again for appearing at the compartmental examination. The fee concession should not be allowed for appearing more than twice at the same examination, whether regular or compartmental.

Central Institute of English, Hyderabad

Report on the P.U.C. materials prepared by the Institute is now ready. The Report as well as the materials will be circulated to the State Departments of Education and Universities in the country.

The fourth regular course commenced on 11th July, 1960 and 50 trainees completed their training in November, 1960. Two research fellows have been appointed. One is working on "Vocabulary tests for PUC students" and the other on "Reinforcing language teaching through comprehension material".

Research work is being carried on currently on the following topics :

1. A suitable English vocabulary for pupils studying in secondary schools.
2. A structural syllabus in English for secondary schools. This is also being tried out in a local high school with the co-operation of the Department of Education, Andhra Pradesh State.
3. A syllabus for the course in English for the Pre-Professional year.

Central Institute of Education, Delhi

The Institute has on roll at the moment 109 students in the B.Ed. class and 14 in the M.Ed. class. There are 20 students registered for Ph.D. in Education.

Two special features started during this period are monthly meetings of the Ph.D. colloquium and fortnightly meetings of the small seminar groups arranged for all students of the Institute on current problems and recent publications in the field of education. These have been planned with a view to giving students training in discussion in small groups and making them acquainted with current problems.

The following research work has been undertaken :

1. Academic achievement of children going from senior basic schools to higher secondary schools : The report has been finalised.
2. Achievement Test in Hindi : 100 items out of 212 that were tried have been selected. The final form is in the press. The Tests will be administered for finding the norms.
3. Group Test of intelligence (15-16 Years) : More tests will have to be constructed and tried out before a final form can be prepared.
4. Socio-economic background of bright children. Analysis of the

data collected last year is in progress. The home addresses of these boys have also been collected with a view to planning a long-term follow-up of these children.

5. Study habits of good and poor students. The first draft of the report is ready.

Seven seminars were held during the period under review on the following topics :

1. Mental hygiene and the school set-up.
2. How to create interest in students to read for pleasure in Hindi.
3. A Seminar for the teachers of biology.
4. The problems of teaching art in schools.
5. Education for international understanding.
6. Moral and religious education in schools.
7. Problems of beginning teachers in the first year of their teaching.

A workshop on educational administration and supervision for the heads of schools and inspectors of schools, a short course on the implementation of the new syllabus in English and a short course on the implementation of the new syllabus in Hindi were held in September, 1960.

An entertainment was held in the assembly hall of the Institute on 27th September in order to raise money for the Students' Help Fund. This is a fund from which students who are poor and needy are given necessary financial help. The students staged *She Stoops to Conquer* and were able to raise about Rs. 1,900.

Central Bureau of Textbook Research

Work on the following projects was continued during the months :

- (a) "Assignments in Mathematics".
- (b) "Assignments in Science".

- (c) "Assignments in Geography".
- (d) "Assignments in History".

The assignments for developing attitudes in history teaching were completed.

Introductions explaining the purpose, technique and facts to be borne in mind by the teachers in framing the following assignments were completed :

- (a) Assignments fostering historical thinking.
- (b) Assignments for development of ability and skills in reading and interpretation of pictures, maps, graphs and battle plans.

Guidance was given in the field of Textbooks and Curriculum to an M.Ed. student from the Government Training College, Patiala.

A comprehensive list of suitable books and pamphlets in English dealing with Indian life, culture and literature was prepared for onward transmission to Unesco for use in textbooks to be used in secondary schools in Denmark for students of 14-15 age-group.

Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance

Preparation of Tools

(i) Science Selection Battery : Necessary arrangements have been made for administering the tests in 19 local schools for validation purposes. So far approximately 300 students of six local schools have been tested.

(ii) Government of India Merit Scholarship Tests : The work of preparing the tests has been completed and the materials have been sent to the various States. A meeting of the representatives of the State Bureaux was held on 22nd August, 1960 to discuss the instructions and the procedures for administering the tests. The marks of the candidates from the various centres have been statistically analysed for determining the mean and the standard deviation of

each group. A final list of candidates selected for interview on this basis has been prepared.

(iii) Guidance Battery : It is proposed to develop norms for the class XI students of the Delhi schools for the following foreign tests :

- (a) N.I.I.P. 70/23, a non-verbal test of intelligence.
- (b) Minnesota Paper Formboard Test—a test of space visualization.

Training

During the first part of the quarter under review, the syllabus and time-table of the course were finalized and preparations for holding the course were completed.

The course commenced on 5th September. Twelve trainees from the States of Punjab, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore and Delhi, have reported for training. Eleven of these trainees are State-deputies.

The staff of the Bureau have participated in the training course in Vocational Guidance for Employment Officers being conducted at the Director General of Resettlement and Employment.

Co-ordination

In a conference of Heads of Government Bureaux of Guidance convened in August, 1960 thirteen delegates from eleven States and two Union Territories participated. The purpose of convening the conference was to review the progress of guidance in secondary education to date, to plan for the Third Five-Year Plan and to work out measures for coordinating the activities of the various Government agencies working in the field of guidance. The conference has made a number of recommendations.

A study of the factors affecting the choice of subjects among students in higher secondary schools of Delhi has been undertaken. In this connection 20 students have been interviewed.

Occupational Information Programme

The work of analyzing and tabulating newspaper advertisements for the study of employment trends is in progress. So far 9,647 advertisements have been analyzed and the data tabulated.

Promotional and Other Activities

A pamphlet for pupils in the "Need for Guidance" series is under preparation.

The Bureau conducted the preliminary screening of children between the ages of 5 and 8 for the Government of India Merit Scholarship Selection programme at the request of the Directorate of Education, Delhi.

Directorate of Extension Programme for Secondary Education

Examination Unit

A five-day Training Course on Research in Evaluation was organised from 31st August at the Secondary Training College, Bombay, for the benefit of a group consisting of Co-ordinators, Lecturers of training colleges, selected teachers from secondary schools and representatives of Secondary School Examination Boards in Maharashtra and Gujarat States. A five-week Training Course for the State Evaluation personnel commenced in September in the Central Institute of Education, Delhi.

Strengthening Multipurpose Schools

Seven institutions were selected from the States of Jammu & Kashmir, Bihar and Maharashtra for inclusion in the Directorate's scheme of strengthening multipurpose schools in the country.

Extension Services

A training course for imparting instruction and training in the use of audio-visual equipment to the co-ordinators of Extension Services Departments of the Training Colleges in Central and Southern Zones commenced from the 19th September for

a period of four weeks, at the National Institute of Audio-Visual Education.

Experimental Projects

Sanction for payment of grants-in-aid amounting to Rs. 46,630 to 64 selected institutions in the various States for implementation of Experimental projects was received and the first instalment of grants-in-aid amounting to Rs. 31,543 was paid to these institutions.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Conference of Home Science Administrators

It has been proposed to convene, in co-operation with Technical Cooperation Mission, a Conference of Home Science Administrators on 23-25 January, 1961 in order that Home Science Administrators who have completed their observation tours in the U.S.A. will be able to share their experience with the other workers in the field.

Cheap Publication of Foreign Textbooks etc.

It has been increasingly realised that one of the handicaps suffered by our students and teachers in colleges and universities is the high cost of text and reference books in English and in order to overcome this difficulty efforts are being made to produce and make available books at reasonable price by arrangement with foreign publishers. The Ministry of Education set up an Inter-Ministerial Committee and has been able to compile lists of books on the following subjects which could be considered for publication: *Basic Sciences, Humanities, Medicine, Agriculture, Veterinary Science, Engineering and Technology*. Efforts are being made to evolve a scheme for developing the project.

Gurukul Kangri, Haridwar—Payment of Maintenance Grant

A sum of Rs. 25,000 being the second instalment of *ad hoc* grant-in-aid towards the maintenance expenses was sanctioned to the Gurukula Kangri, Haridwar.

Amendment to Statutes etc. of the Central Universities

The President, in his capacity as the Visitor of the Aligarh Muslim University, has approved the amendment to Statute 18(A)(1) of the Statutes of the University relating to the creation of the Faculties of Law and Commerce.

The President, in his capacity as the Visitor of the University of Delhi, has accorded sanction to the amendment to clause (1) of Statute 28 of the Statutes of the University relating to the Provident Fund rules of the University.

The President, in his capacity as the Visitor of the Visva-Bharati, Santiniketan, has accorded his assent to the proposal for the amendment to Statute 29 of the Statutes of the Visva-Bharati relating to the Provident Fund Rules of the University.

Appointment of Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University

On the recommendations of the Committee constituted under sub-clause (2) of Statute 11-F of the Statutes of the University, the President, in his capacity as the Visitor of the University of Delhi, has appointed Prof. N. K. Sidhanta as the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Delhi. Prof. Sidhanta has since assumed charge of his office.

Amendment to Provident Fund Rules of the Lady Irwin College, New Delhi

The Government of India have approved an amendment to Provident Fund Rules of the Lady Irwin College, New Delhi authorising the collection by the Directress of subscription at the rate of 8 1/3% of salary by deduction from each month's salary and credit to the Fund.

Holding of Examinations of Foreign Universities in India

During the period under report, six students were permitted to take London University examinations in India.

Loan for Construction of Hostels

Sanction has been accorded to the payment of a further instalment of Rs. 50,000 being the fifth instalment of the Government of India's loan of Rs. 2,70,000 to the Hindu College, Delhi, for the construction of Hostel Building bringing the total amount so far paid to Rs. 2,50,000.

Sanction has been accorded to the payment of a further instalment of Rs. 85,000 being the last instalment of the Government of India's loan of Rs. 2,00,000 to the Andhra Loyola College, Vijayawada for the construction of the hostel building bringing the total amount of the loan paid to Rs. 2,00,000.

Sanction has been accorded to the payment of a further instalment of Rs. 50,000 being the last instalment of the Government of India's loan of Rs. 2,00,000 to the Bhadrak College, Bhadrak (Orissa) for the construction of hostel building, bringing the total amount of the loan paid so far to Rs. 2,00,000.

Maintenance Grant to Jamia Millia Islamia

Sanction has been accorded to the payment of a further sum of Rs. 1,30,000 to the Jamia Millia Islamia as the second instalment of Government of India's grant for maintenance during 1960-61, bringing the total amount so far paid to Rs. 2,60,000.

Grant-in-aid to University Grants Commission

A sum of Rs. 2,25,00,000 has been released to the University Grants Commission

during the period under report. This includes Rs. 1,75,00,000 for Plan items of expenditure and Rs. 50,00,000 for non-Plan items of expenditure.

Aligarh Muslim University

An un-paid balance of Rs. 96,664.67 nP. out of the loan of Rs. 1,10,000 advanced to the Aligarh Muslim University for construction of hostel has been converted into outright grant on the recommendations of the University Grants Commission.

Ex-Gratia Sanction of Funds

Sanction has been accorded to the payment of an ex-gratia grant of Rs. 500 to Prof. N. K. Sil, T.B. Patient, Nadia (West Bengal) to meet the maintenance expenses of his family.

Visit of Educationist to Australia

At the invitation of the Government of Australia to arrange for the visit of a senior educationist of the Government of India, Dr. P. D. Shukla, Deputy Educational Adviser to the Government of India visited Australia from September 9 to October 10, 1960 to observe the educational system of Australia with special reference to the scheme of correspondence courses operating in that country.

Rural Higher Education

The following sanctions were made :

<i>Rural Institutes</i>	<i>Grants</i>		<i>Stipends</i>
	Rs.		Rs.
1. Jamia Rural Institute, Jamianagar, New Delhi	4,04,000		—
2. Vidyabhavan Rural Institute, Udaipur	2,10,000		—
3. Rural Institute, Amravati	2,00,000		8,515
4. Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya Rural Institute, Coimbatore	1,50,000		—
5. Gandhigram Rural Institute	—		5,060
6. Balwant Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Agra	—		5,930
TOTAL	9,64,000		19,505

AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION

National Institute of Audio-Visual Education

32 films were added to the Library; 2,819 films and 28 filmstrips were issued to 360 members.

450 books and pamphlets were issued to trainees and members of the staff.

22 new members were enrolled during this period bringing the total number of members to 1,396.

61 filmshows were conducted by the Mobile Cinema Unit in which 249 films were screened.

The Preview Committee met 8 times during this period and previewed 11 films and 43 filmstrips.

A number of display boards and bulletin boards have been prepared and displayed in the wall space of the staircase of the Institute.

The chart 'Production of Oxygen' was finalized in the Graphic section of the Institute.

The study Kit on Delhi is being finalized.

Numerical data such as figures of yearly production since 1949; value of exports etc. in respect of (1) Coal (2) Iron and Steel and (3) Tea was collected and compiled for use in charts on the Economic Geography of India.

A note on "Research Projects in the field of Audio-Visual Education" was prepared for guidance in the Institute and for circulation to schools and educational institutions in India interested in research in this field.

Rough sketches for posters and cover designs for physical efficiency campaign were prepared for the Physical Education and Recreation Division of the Ministry of Education.

With the idea of preparing a National Register of research workers/experts in

the field of Audio-Visual Education, State Governments had been asked to supply information regarding research workers/experts with necessary details relating to the field of specialisation. A list of 60 names has been prepared from the material received from various educational institutions and State Governments for preparing the National Register of Research Workers/Experts in the field of Audio-Visual Education. Particulars of these persons are being examined for final approval.

The Institute conducted the second Short Term Course in Audio-Visual Education from 14th July, 1960. 20 Trainees from different State Governments/Union Administrations attended this course.

A Short Training Course in Audio-Visual Education of four weeks duration was conducted for the coordinators of the Extension Services from 19th September, 1960 on the request of the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education, New Delhi.

Exchange of Films

The Ministry of Information & Broadcasting, have intimated that they are now negotiating for informal agreement for procuring good films produced in other foreign countries.

The films on 'Child Welfare', for which the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting had not agreed earlier, has been included in the General Publicity Programmes of the production programme of the Ministry of Education for the year 1960-61.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Financial Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

Grants amounting to Rs. 2,01,670 were sanctioned to six Voluntary Educational Organisations for strengthening and developing their activities in the field of Social Education.

Workers' Social Education Institute, Indore

The Workers' Social Education Institute at Indore started functioning from the middle of August, 1960.

Library Institute

The second one year diploma course of Library Institute started in July, 1960. 14 Trainees from various States are attending it.

Scheme of Setting up Experimental Adult Schools in the Country

The scheme which was scheduled to be completed by 30th June, 1960 was extended up to 15th September, 1960. Since the reports from the regional units were not received, the R.T.P. Centre is now engaged in writing the report of the Project.

National Fundamental Education Centre

Training course for the fifth batch of officers commenced on 1st August, 1960. Fourteen District Officers in charge of Social Education in seven States reported for training. The training programme is being conducted according to the plan prepared beforehand in staff meetings, on the basis of experience gained in the previous training courses.

Research

A press copy of the final report on 'Village Meeting Places and Community (Social Education) Centres' in Mehrauli Block has been sent for printing.

The report on 'Reading Interests and Habits of Village People' in village Mukimpur is being drafted.

Investigation schedule was prepared for the 'Survey of the Living Conditions of Children in two villages in Mehrauli Block'. The Centre is offering technical assistance in this research project of the Indian Council for Child Welfare.

Preliminary discussions were held to prepare a design for 'Evaluation and assess-

ment of the impact of experimental T-V programmes on T-V Clubs'. The project is being worked for the All India Radio.

Audio-Visual Unit

The Audio-Visual Unit of the Centre produced copies of flannelgraph pictures on 'Problems of Rural Health'.

16 m.m. film on 'Social Education for Community Action' is under preparation, so also a filmstrip on 'Village Factions and Social Education'.

Library

The library of the Centre has now 4,325 books. Bibliographies on 36 important topics were prepared.

National Book Trust

Professor G. C. Chatterji has been appointed as a whole-time Chairman of the Trust with effect from 20th September, 1960 vice Dr. C. D. Deshmukh resigned.

Shri R. P. Naik, I.C.S., Joint Secretary, Ministry of Education, has been nominated as Trustee of the National Book Trust, to represent the Ministry on the Trust, vice Shri K. G. Saiyidain resigned.

The staff of the National Book Trust has been admitted to the benefit of C.H.S. Scheme in Delhi.

Gyan Sarovar

The Publication Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting has agreed to publish the Popular Encyclopaedia 'Gyan Sarovar' Volumes III, IV & V. Accordingly, financial details have been worked out and accepted and the completed manuscripts of Volumes III & IV have been sent to that Division for printing. Similarly, the Publication Division has agreed to handle its sale.

Hindi Vishwa Bharati

A sum of Rs. 60,000 has been sanctioned as 4th instalment of Government of

India's share of subsidy to Messrs. Hindi Vishwa Bharati, Lucknow, for publication of Hindi Encyclopaedia "Vishwa Bharati" in 10 Volumes. Six Volumes have already been published and the 7th Volume is expected to be out shortly.

Unesco Projects in India

Unesco projects for implementation in India under 'Production of Reading Material for New Reading Public' during 1960 were considered in the Ministry and comments finalised for transmission to Unesco. The organisation of four Book Promotion Weeks at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras, announcing the second competition of books for New Reading Public and arranging two Centres for conducting training course for Book-Sellers and Publishers at Delhi and Madras are *inter alia* a few important projects to be implemented during the current financial year.

Unesco Regional Workshop, Madras

A further sum of Rs. 967 as the third and the final instalment of grant has been sanctioned to the Southern Languages Book Trust, Madras against the expenditure incurred by that Trust for the organisation of the Unesco Regional Workshop for Book Distribution, Promotion and Market Research held at Madras in November-December, 1959.

Prize Schemes for Books for Neo-literates

316 books and manuscripts in various Indian languages were received for the seventh competition of books for neo-literates. These were submitted to different panels of reviewers. The results have since been announced.

SOCIAL WELFARE AND EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED

Special Employment Office for the Handicapped

It has been decided to establish a Special Employment Office for the Handicapped at Delhi during the current financial year.

T.C.M. Programme

Having completed his training in U.S.A. in general social welfare work and social administration under the T.C.M. Programme O.A. No. 44 dealing with Social Welfare Education in India, Shri Raja Ram Shastri, Head of the Institute of Social Sciences, Kashi Vidyapeeth, Varanasi-2, resumed his work at the Institute.

The names of three persons have been recommended to the T.C.M. authorities for consideration of training in U.S.A. during 1960-61 in advanced and specialised techniques in modern social welfare work methods under T.C.M. Programme—O.A. No. 44.

Children Bill, 1959

The Joint Select Committee on Children Bill laid their report on the Children Bill, 1959, on the table of both Houses of Parliament in August, 1960.

Voluntary Organisations for the Handicapped

A sum of Rs. 16,118 has been given as grant-in-aid to the School for the Blind, Ahmedabad under the scheme of "Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations for the Handicapped".

A sum of Rs. 6,000 has been given as grant-in-aid to the Indian Council for Mental Hygiene, Bombay from Education Minister's Discretionary Fund.

State Social Welfare Minister's Conference

The State Social Welfare Ministers' Conference was held in Vigyan Bhavan, New Delhi, from 28th to the 30th of July, 1960 to discuss some of the more important recommendations of the Study Team on Social Welfare.

Social Welfare Education Institutions

A grant-in-aid of Rs. 16,000 was sanctioned to the Indian Council for Child Welfare, New Delhi for their general activities.

Another grant of Rs. 3,482 was sanctioned to the same institution to enable them to

send their delegates to attend the meeting of the General Council for the International Union for Child Welfare held in Lisbon.

Third Five-Year Plan—Social Welfare Sector

Meetings of the Working Group took place to discuss the draft Third Five-Year Plan—Social Welfare Sector in respect of the Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Tripura and Manipur Administrations, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh.

Employment Office for Disabled, Bombay

The Second meeting of the Advisory Committee for the pilot Employment Office for Disabled, Bombay, was held at Bombay on 2nd September, 1960 to review the progress made by that office in the placement of handicapped persons in remunerative employment.

Training Centre for the Adult Blind, Dehra Dun

The strength in the Men's Section has reached its maximum of 150 while in the Women's Section it is 32. Many trainees are evincing keen interest in the newly introduced trades of cycle repairing, assembly work and inspection of components and carpentry. Most of them have successfully completed their courses.

Variety entertainments, picnics etc., continue to be a regular feature of the extra-curricular activities.

Model School for the Blind Children, Dehra Dun

A new class viz. Primary V was added to the school this July. Nine more pupil joined the school increasing the strength to thirty four.

Employment Office for the Adult Blind, Madras

The Employment Office, Madras, which was started in July, 1954, is a part of the Training Centre for the Adult Blind, Dehra Dun. This office attempts to secure re-

munerative employment for some of the ex-trainees of the Training Centre, Dehra Dun chiefly in ordinary industrial establishments of South India. By the end of the quarter ending 30th September 1960, the number of placements made by this office since 1954 is 130, including the placement of two blind women.

Scholarships for the Blind, Deaf and Orthopaedically Handicapped

A sum of Rs. 28,904 has been paid to the Blind during the quarter under review.

Rehabilitation of Displaced Students and Persons

The educational qualifications of twenty eight persons have been verified from the records available in this Ministry on references received from the Punjab University, Chandigarh, and the various Ministries.

221 certificates and verifications in respect of the Indian nationals have been received from the Government of Pakistan through the High Commissioner for India in Pakistan, Karachi, and have been despatched to the persons concerned.

A sum of Rs. 44,47,000 has been sanctioned in favour of the Governments of West Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa for the grant of financial assistance to displaced students from East Pakistan during 1960-61.

A sum of Rs. 23,865 has been sanctioned in favour of the Honorary Director, Social Welfare & Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, to pay the arrears of stipends to the destitute girls undergoing training at the Kasturba Balika Ashram, Okhla, and the Kasturba Hospital, Indore.

YOUTH WELFARE AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Labour and Social Service Camps

A sum of Rs. 10,72,886 has been paid as grants to the Bharat Sevak Samaj, N.C.C. Directorate (Ministry of Defence),

Bharat Scouts & Guides, State Governments and Universities for conducting 474 Labour and Social Service Camps.

Campus Work Projects

A sum of Rs. 2,62,771 has been sanctioned to Universities and State Governments as instalments of grants for the projects approved during the years 1957-58, 1958-59, 1959-60 and first instalment of grant for the project approved during the current financial year.

Committee for Evaluation of Therapeutical Claims for Yogic Practices

The Government of India have appointed a Committee of Medical Experts to study, evaluate and report to the Government of India on the therapeutical values of Yogic Practice. The first meeting of the Committee was held at New Delhi on 21st September, 1960. As per the decision taken by the Committee at this meeting a questionnaire has been sent out by the Ministry to about 60 Yogic institutions in the country for collection of certain basic data in respect of the *locus-standi* of the institutions as well as the nature and scope of their activities. After examining the data in reply to the questionnaire the Committee proposes to visit certain selected institutions in the country for an on-the-spot study of the programmes of activities conducted by the institutions.

National Physical Efficiency Drive

The National Physical Efficiency Drive was launched during 1959-60, for activating widespread interest in physical fitness throughout the country and to arouse the enthusiasm of the people for higher standards of physical efficiency and achievement. Detailed reports of the last Year's Drive are still awaited from a number of States. However, on the basis of reports received so far, it can be said that the scheme has made a fairly successful start. The Government of India have had under consideration the proposals to accelerate the progress of the scheme. The revised

policy for 1960-61 has since been finalised. In the light of the experience that has been gained during last year and the advice of the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation, the Government of India have made certain suggestions to the State Governments for expanding the scope and coverage of the Drive during 1960-61 and onwards.

It has also been emphasised upon the State Governments that it is very important to ensure that an accurate record of the results is maintained at the testing centres. The national tests of physical fitness like those now prescribed have to be evolved over a period of years and modifications and alterations will have to be given effect to from time to time in the light of experience gained. The Government of India propose to take up periodically the question of review of the tests in consultation with the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation.

Popularization of Syllabuses of Physical Education for Boys and Girls

The preparation of the illustrated Hand-Book on the syllabus of Physical Education for Boys has been completed and the manuscript is in press.

Sports and Games

The All-India Council of Sports met on 11th and 12th July under the presidentship of H.H. the Maharaja of Patiala. The council recommended 60% of the approved expenditure as a grant from Government towards meeting the expenditure on India's participation in the Olympiad. The Council also approved, with slight modifications proposals for financial assistance received from a number of Sports organisations. It approved the proposed allocation of funds for acquisition of playfields, purchase of equipment and promotion of sports in rural areas to the various States. The Council agreed to accord recognition to the Squash Rackets Association and the Indian Golf Union.

Grants

The following grants-in-aid were sanctioned to the Institutions listed below :

Rs. 6,500 to the Andhra Pradesh Sports Council, Hyderabad for the purchase of sports equipment.

Rs. 10,000 to the Kerala Sports Council, Trivandrum for the purchase of sports equipment.

Rs. 5,000 to the Basketball Federation of India, Ajmer for the Basketball National Championship, held in 1959.

Rs. 28,000, Rs. 20,710, Rs. 9,795, Rs. 17,185 and Rs. 10,000 to the State Governments of West Bengal, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and Madras respectively for the construction of 'B' type Rifle Shooting Ranges for the popularisation of Rifle Shooting.

Rs. 10,014 to the All-India Lawn Tennis Association, New Delhi for meeting cost of tourist class return air fare from Bombay to London and back of three players for participation in Wimbledon Championship in July-August, 1960.

Rs. 2,39,650 to the Indian Olympic Association, New Delhi for meeting 60% of the expenditure in connection with deputing a contingent of 54 competitors and 15 officials for participation in the Olympic meet held at Rome during August-September, 1960.

Rs. 22,500 to the Government of Mysore for the construction of a stadium by Y.M.C.A., Bangalore.

Rs. 12,000 to the Government of West Bengal for the construction of a stadium at Jalpaiguri.

Rs. 25,000 to the National Institute of Sports for meeting its expenses.

Rs. 5,000 to the Indian Hockey Federation, Madras for the National Championship held at Calcutta in February, 1960.

Rs. 13,156 to the All-India Chess Federation, Madras for meeting the cost of the tourist class return air fare of four players

to Leipzig and back for participation in the XIV World Chess Championship.

Rs. 9,504 to the Badminton Association of India, Bombay for meeting the cost of the return tourist class air fare of five players and a Manager for participation in the Thomas Cup Match at Bangkok.

Rs. 10,000 to the Indian Golf Union, Calcutta for meeting a part of the travel expenses of the Indian Golf Team for participation in the Eisenhower Cup Tournament and World Amateur Championship in U.S.A. in September, 1960.

Rs. 5,000 to the Board of Control for Cricket in India, Ahmedabad for conducting All-India Schools Inter-State and Inter-Zones Tournament during 1958-59.

Rs. 5,000 to the Swimming Federation of India, Calcutta for holding their National Championship for the year 1960.

Rs. 26,824 to the All-India Football Federation, Calcutta for meeting 60% of the expenses incurred on the visit of the Indonesian team to India and Indian Team to Indonesia.

Rs. 4,000 to the All-India Women's Hockey Association, New Delhi for holding the Coaching Camp in Delhi in September, 1960.

Scouting and Guiding

A grant-in-aid of Rs. 25,000 (first instalment) was sanctioned in favour of the Bharat Scouts and Guides, New Delhi against the anticipated deficit of Rs. 55,600 in the administrative and organizational budget for the year 1960-61.

Youth Leadership Training Camp

A sum of Rs. 2,000 was sanctioned to conduct the 11th Youth Leadership Training Camp in Banaras Hindu University campus at Varanasi from October 3 to 18, 1960.

Youth Welfare Boards and Committees

The universities of Agra and Punjab have been sanctioned grants of Rs. 2,472 and

4,023 respectively to meet 50% of the administrative expenditure on setting up Youth Welfare Committees. The universities have been advised to set up these organizations in order to give closer attention to Youth Welfare Work in the universities.

Students' Tour

Grants amounting to Rs. 3,842 have been given to four educational institutions in Union Territories to organise tours by students. About 109 students and teachers are expected to take advantage of the grant.

Bal Bhavan

A total amount of Rs. 1.30 lakhs has been sanctioned to the Bal Bhavan Board to meet the cost of construction of the building and also to cover the day to day expenditure during the period under report.

National Discipline Scheme

National Discipline Scheme is being implemented under Ministry of Education as a part of Educational Development Programme during 2nd Five-Year Plan.

Till April, 1960 the scheme had been extended to 970 schools/institutions in Delhi and in the States of Punjab, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir and West Bengal with over 5,25,000 children under training.

From the academic year 1960-61, the scheme has now been extended to Rajasthan and N.D.S. instructors have been posted to 93 schools with a student population of about 43,000. The total number of schools which are receiving the benefit of N.D.S. training is 1,063.

An additional allotment of Rs. 4 lakhs has been placed at the disposal of N.D.S. Directorate to train 500 instructors during this financial year. A Central Training Centre has been started at Sariska Palace near Alwar in Rajasthan.

PROPAGATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF HINDI

Grants to Voluntary Organisations

A sum of Rs. 1,63,519 was sanctioned to ten Hindi organisations for the development and propagation of Hindi.

Free Gift of Hindi Books to Non-Hindi Speaking States

A sum of Rs. 79,526 was paid during the quarter to various publishers who supplied Hindi books to various States under the Scheme during 1959-60.

Preparation of Hindi Encyclopaedia

A sum of Rs. 25,000 was sanctioned to the Nagari Pracharini Sabha, Varanasi for the preparation of Hindi Encyclopaedia.

Setting up of Hindi Commission

It has been decided to set up a Hindi Commission consisting of Scientists and Technologists for the evolution of scientific and technical terminology. It has also been decided to set up a high power Advisory Board to advise Government of India in regard to the work entrusted to the Commission.

Scientific Terminology

The total number of terms evolved up to 30th September, 1960 is 2,68,207 and the total number approved by the Expert Committees is 1,36,831. The number approved by the Board of Scientific Terminology is 40,898.

Key Board for the Hindi Typewriter

Key Board for the Hindi Typewriter has been finalised and a Press Note has been issued to this effect.

Propagation and Development of Sanskrit

A sum of Rs. 25,125 has been sanctioned for the improvement of the contents and quality of twelve Sanskrit Journals.

UNESCO ACTIVITIES

Fourth Conference of the Indian National Commission for Cooperation with Unesco

The Fourth Conference of the Indian National Commission for Cooperation with Unesco was held on 25th and 26th October, 1960 at New Delhi. Among other things the Conference considered the revision of the Constitution of the Commission, and Unesco's Budget and Programme for 1961-62.

Eleventh Session of the General Conference of Unesco

The Government of India sent a delegation to the Eleventh Session of the General Conference of Unesco held in Paris from November 14 to December 13, 1960.

Regional Seminar on the Teaching of Science

In response to Unesco's request the Government of India agreed to act as host to the Regional Seminar on the Teaching of Science at the University and Secondary School levels in South and South East Asia in November-December, 1960 at Delhi.

Conference on the East-West Major Project

In collaboration with Unesco, 'Rama Krishna Mission Institute of Culture, Calcutta' is planning to organise during January-February, 1961, a Conference on the 'Reactions of East-West to the Basic Problems of Modern Life' under the Major Project of Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values. The Indian National Commission for Cooperation with Unesco is assisting the Institute in the issue of invitations and other matters.

Regional Symposium on Termites

Unesco in collaboration with the Zoological Survey of India organised the Regional Symposium on Termites at New Delhi from 4th to 12th October, 1960, with the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural

Affairs acting as host. The Indian National Commission was represented on the Organising Committee of the Symposium.

Meeting of the International Advisory Committee on Research in the Natural Sciences Programme of Unesco

The International Advisory Committee on Research in the Natural Sciences Programme of Unesco have accepted, subject to the approval of General Conference, the invitation of the Government of India, to hold the 1961 meeting of the Committee in India.

U.N. Technical Assistance Programme for 1959

Unesco has approved the grant of a fellowship to Shri H. K. Rakshit of the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, in the field of Electrical Communications Engineering, for a period of four months commencing 16th September, 1960.

East-West Major Project

(1) *Orient-Occident Week*

Unesco has undertaken to provide \$2,000 in connection with the Organisation of 'Orient-Occident Week' in India during 1960 which is designed to further the objectives of the Major Project on Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values. The 'Week' will consist of exhibitions, cultural programmes and lectures. The activities will not be restricted to any one town, but will be spread over the whole country.

The Indian National Commission has requested the Indian International Centre to carry out this assignment with financial and other assistance from interested Universities and the University Grants Commission.

(2) *Preparation of a Book on the National Culture for Young People*

At the Indian National Commission's request, Unesco has agreed to provide financial assistance to the extent of \$500 for the

preparation of a pamphlet or book on the national culture and present day life in India for use in other countries. The project will be published and the entry judged the best will be awarded a prize and sponsored for publication by the Commission.

(3) *Preparation of Kit of Visual Materials on the National Culture*

In response to the Commission's request, Unesco has undertaken to provide a sum of \$250 for the preparation of the kit of visual materials on the National Culture. On the recommendation of the Executive Board of the Commission the Project has been referred to the National Institute of Visual Education for implementation.

(4) *Preparation of a Textbook in Danish*

Danish educational authorities are planning to prepare a textbook in Danish for use in the Schools of Denmark, as an aid in teaching about the life, culture and literature of other countries under the East West Major Project. The book would be used by pupils of the 8th and 9th grades (14 and 15 years old) in the Danish Secondary Schools, in language and literature Classes where teachers would try to interest the children in the life and culture of other countries and so furthering international understanding. Unesco's request for suitable material from which excerpts would be taken for use in the book, is under consideration of the Commission.

Translation Project

(1) *Translation of Western Classics into Indian Languages*

On the recommendation of the Commission, Unesco has agreed to provide under its 1959-60 programmes, financial assistance to the extent of \$5,000 for the translation of Western Classics into Indian languages by the Sahitya Akademi. A formal contract has been received from Unesco in this respect.

(2) *Translation of Ghalib's Works*

On the recommendation made by the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies (ICPHS), Unesco has sponsored the preparation into English of an anthology of the works of Ghalib consisting of extensive selections from his letters and his Urdu and Persian Verses and a sketch of his life. This volume is in preparation by Prof. Ralph Russell of the London School of Oriental and African Studies and Dr. Khurshid-ul-Islam of Aligarh. In consultation with the Sahitya Akademi, the Commission has communicated its approval to Unesco of this project.

(3) *Publication of 'Sacred Writings of Sikhs' (Adi-Granth)*

Under its project of translation of Eastern Classics into Western languages, Unesco has arranged the publication of the work entitled "The Sacred Writings of the Sikhs (Adi-Granth)" in English through Allen and Unwin of England. The translation was done in collaboration with the Sahitya Akademi.

The Sahitya Akademi is planning to sponsor the publication of the Hindi edition of this volume.

(4) *Translation of 'Race and Culture' into Hindi*

The Commission, with assistance from Unesco, has decided to translate into Hindi the Unesco publication entitled 'Race and Culture' by Michel Leiris.

Unesco Major Project on Scientific Research on Arid Zone

Shri Y. Satyanarayan, Plant Ecologist at the Central Arid Zone Research Institute, Jodhpur has been awarded a Unesco fellowship under its Major Project on Arid Lands Research 1959-60 for studies in the field of Plant Ecology.

Exchange of Persons Programme

At the request of Unesco, India received a number of educational leaders, fellows

and grantees during the period under review, who were recipient of Unesco awards under its various programmes. Special programmes of training were arranged for them in Indian Institutions etc. In some cases, arrangements were also made to contact educationists, cultural leaders, scientists and other persons eminent in their fields of study. The scholars came from U.K., Belgium, Chile, Italy, Greece, Indonesia, Japan and Malaya.

Study Tours of Workers

Under Unesco's study tour programme for workers in Asia and Latin America, a team of four persons, sponsored by the Japan Sciendan Council visited India during August-September, 1960.

Unesco Research Centre, Calcutta

The Unesco Research Centre, Calcutta is planning to undertake a project namely 'Extension of the Small Scale Industries Project' with assistance from the Asia Foundation. In consultation with the Ministry of External Affairs, the Government of India's consent to the proposal has been communicated to the Centre.

SCHOLARSHIPS

FOR STUDIES ABROAD

I. Government of India Schemes

Foreign Languages Scholarships Scheme

Out of the total of 14 candidates selected for 1959-60, 9 have gone abroad so far. The remaining 5 will go as soon as their admissions and/or passages have been finalised.

Applications for 15 scholarships for 1960-61 have been received and are under consideration.

Partial Financial Assistance (Loan) Scheme

Application for partial financial assistance was received from one student. Loan of the value of Rs. 1,100 has been sanctioned. Rs. 10,701.39 has been recovered from students who were given loans in the past.

Passage Grants for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes Students, 1960-61

Six 'Other Backward Classes' students (who were in receipt of merit scholarships without passage cost) have been awarded passage grants for study in the U.S.A./Canada; of these 5 have gone abroad.

Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes Overseas Scholarships Scheme, 1960-61

Recommendations for 12 scholarships (4 each for the three categories of students) are awaited from the U.P.S.C. for award of the 12 scholarships.

II. Awards Made by Foreign Governments/International Organisations/Institutions

British Council Scholarships

The 12 candidates selected for 1960-61 have left for the U.K.

Applications for 8 scholarships for 1961-62 have been invited.

Bulgarian Government Scholarship, 1960-61

The selected candidate has left for Bulgaria.

Canadian Council Fellowships, 1960-61

One candidate has been selected by the Council for award of the fellowship.

Canadian Women's Press Club—Offer of a Visiting Fellowship to an Indian Woman Journalist, 1960-61

One candidate has been selected by the Club for award of the fellowship.

Commonwealth Scholarship/Fellowship Plan—Conference of Commonwealth Experts on Teaching of English as the Second Language at Makerere College, Uganda, 1961

Shri G. K. Gokak, Director, Central Institute of English, Hyderabad, will represent India at the Conference to be held in

January, 1961. The question of sending another delegation is also under consideration.

Commonwealth Education Cooperation Scheme — Teachers' Training Programme, 1960-61

The 3 selected candidates are studying at the Leeds University, U.K.

Danish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The 2 selected candidates have left for Denmark.

French Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Out of the 9 candidates recommended, 8 have been approved by the French Government; approval of the remaining candidate is awaited.

Hellenic Lines Private, Ltd., New York—Offer of Free Passages to Indian Nationals, 1960-61

The 3 selected candidates have left for the U.S.A.

Imperial Relations Trust (London University Institute of Education) Fellowships, 1960-61

The 2 selected candidates have left for the U.K.

Spanish Government Scholarship, 1960-61

The name of the candidate recommended has been approved by the Spanish Government.

Turkish Government Scholarship, 1960-61

The name of the selected candidate has been announced.

Swedish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Out of the 2 selected candidates, 1 has left for Sweden.

Unesco Fellowships for Regional Cultural Studies, 1960-61

The names of the 2 selected candidates have been recommended to Unesco for award of the 2 fellowships.

Unesco Fellowship for Production of Books, 1960-61

The name of the selected candidate has been recommended to Unesco for award of the fellowship.

Unesco Fellowship for Study of Journalism, 1960-61

The name of the selected candidate has been recommended to Unesco for award of the fellowship.

U.N. Social Welfare Fellowships Programme, 1960-61

The names of 5 selected candidates have been recommended to the U.N. for award of the 5 fellowships.

FOR STUDIES IN INDIA

For Foreign Nationals

I. Government of India Schemes

Commonwealth Scholarships/Fellowships Plan

Applications for 50 scholarships/fellowships each for 1960-61 and 1961-62, have been invited from the Commonwealth countries through the Indian Missions concerned abroad.

Second Commonwealth Education Conference, 1960

An Inter-Ministerial Committee has been set up in connection with the Second Conference which is to be held in New Delhi from 11th to 25th January, 1962; a small sub-Committee has also been set up to watch the progress. Suggestions on topics for the Agenda have been sent to the Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee for consideration.

General Scholarships Scheme

5 more candidates have been selected for 1960-61, bringing the total to 128; selections for remaining 12 scholarships have yet to be made. Out of the 128 candidates

selected, 116 have come and are studying in Institutions in India.

Applications for 140 scholarships for 1961-62 have been invited from the foreign countries concerned through the Indian Mission Abroad.

Scholarships to Bhutanese Students, 1960-61

Out of the total of 5 scholarships to be awarded for degree/diploma courses, candidates for 2 have been selected; the remaining 3 awards could not be made as suitable candidates were not available.

Scholarships to Sikkimese Students, 1960-61

Candidates for 10 scholarships for degree/diploma courses (which also include two scholarships which could not be availed of by the Bhutanese students) have been selected. Admissions for 6 have been arranged so far.

Commonwealth Education Cooperation Scheme—Import of Specialists for Key-posts

A request for the services of 18 specialists to man the key posts has been made to the U.K. Government.

Scholarships/Fellowships to Students from South, South-East Asian and Other Countries under the Colombo Plan, 1960-61

Out of the total of 18 candidates, whose admissions have been arranged in educational institutions in India, 7 have come and are studying here.

II. Scholarships/Fellowships Offered by Unesco

Study tour/observation programmes for a national each from Belgium, Chile, Greece, Norway, and Italy have been arranged. All the 5 foreign nationals are undergoing their study tour/observation programmes.

For Indian Nationals

Merit Scholarships in Public Schools 1960-61

Written and Psychological tests for selecting candidates have been completed. The Central Selection Committee has started interviewing the candidates at various Centres. Selections are expected to be finalised by the end of December, 1960.

Post-Metric Merit Scholarships Scheme, 1960-61

Candidates for 106 scholarships, out of the total of 200, have been selected; selections for the remaining 94 scholarships will be made as soon as recommendations from the State Governments concerned are received.

Research Scholarships in Humanities

Twenty more candidates have been selected for 1959-60 bringing the total to 49. Thirty-two candidates have commenced research on their approved subjects.

Applications for 100 scholarships for 1960-61 have been received. The meeting of the Selection Committee was held on 27/28th October, to select candidates for interviews.

Scholarships/Other Educational Facilities to the Children of Political Sufferers, 1960-61

Central Government's approval for the implementation of the Scheme has been accorded to the State Government/Union Administration (of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Mysore, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, Manipur and Tripura) who have so far agreed to implement the scheme in accordance with the pattern suggested by the Government of India. The Andhra Pradesh Government's request for release of Central Government's share of expenditure is under consideration.

Scholarships for Higher Studies in Hindi for Persons Belonging to non-Hindi Speaking Areas, 1960-61

Candidates for 70 scholarships, out of the total of 110, have been selected; selections for the remaining 40 awards will be made as soon as recommendations from the State Governments concerned are received.

RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS

Research in Problems Connected with Secondary Education

A sum of Rs. 2,250 has been sanctioned to the Government Training College, Mangalore, for a research project entitled "Study of the present set-up of the intra-mural and inter-school competition in games and sports with special reference to the methods of classification and type of programmes of assessing achievements of aims of such competitions".

A sum of Rs. 1,500 has also been sanctioned to the Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya Teachers' College, Coimbatore, being the first instalment of the grant for 1960-61 for continuing work on the research project "Causes of Resistance to Basic Education."

Administrative approval to incur expenditure to the tune of Rs. 13,021 on their research projects has been conveyed to five Institutions.

Year Book of Education in India

The material for the first Year Book is being collected from the State Governments/Union Territories and the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs.

Teacher Training Programme

Towards the latter half of 1959, the Ministry of Education took in hand a study on the existing conditions regarding the recruitment, general education, professional training and service conditions of primary teachers in India. Accordingly,

a questionnaire was prepared and it was sent round to all institutions for the training of primary school teachers in the country. The response to the questionnaire was very good and out of about 1,100 institutions more than 900 sent replies to the questionnaire. The information available in the replies was supplemented by an on the spot study of the problems by an officer of the Ministry. On the basis of the information so collected, a report on the status of primary school teachers in the different States of the country (excepting Jammu and Kashmir) was prepared and circulated to State Governments.

A comparative study of the syllabi and the existing procedures for examinations of the different systems prevailing in the country was also prepared. 26 different syllabi were analysed.

Educational Information

During the period July to September, the Information Section attended to as many as 1,928 enquiries from the public. 260 visitors took advantage of the Reference Library maintained in the Unit.

Of late, short informative notes on various subjects of study in the U.K., Australia, Germany, Canada, Poland and India have been prepared to speed up replies to public queries.

A booklet giving comprehensive information about professional studies in Education, Law and Journalism in Indian universities and institutes, is in the final stage of compilation.

Publications

The following publications were brought out :

The Education Quarterly—Autumn 1960 Issue.

Youth—Autumn 1960 Issue.

Indian Journal of Educational Administration and Research—Summer and Autumn 1960 Issues.

Catalogue of Non-priced Publications.

Ministry of Education of India—Report on Educational Progress—1959-60.

Scholarships for Studies Abroad (Revised Edition).

All-India Educational Survey.

English Public Schools by Din Dayal.

Women's Education in India by Padmini Sen Gupta.

A Plan for National Physical Efficiency Drive (Revised Edition).

Proceedings of the State Education Ministers' Conference—1959.

Indian National Commission for Co-operation with Unesco—Work and Programme 1958-60.

The National Council for Women's Education—First Annual Report.

Report of the Committee for the Integration of Post-Basic and Multipurpose Schools.

1,313 copies of publications were sold at the Casual Sales Depot of the Ministry during the period under report.

Educational Statistics

The publication entitled "Directory of Indian Students in U.S.A. and Canada on 1st January 1959" was brought out.

During the period under report, the statistics of 12 States and 8 Universities were scrutinised and discrepancies pointed out, wherever necessary. Besides, the statistics of 5 Centrally Administered Areas were also checked.

A statistical assistant was deputed to Trivandrum, Bhopal and Ujjain to reconcile the statistics for the year 1957-58 in Form 'A' of the States of Kerala, Madhya Pradesh and Form 'B' of the Vikram University respectively. Two officials were deputed to Patna to conduct an In-Service Training Course in Educational Statistics for the benefit of dealing officials of the Bihar University and its affiliated colleges.

During their stay at Patna, efforts were also made to collect and consolidate the statistics of Bihar University in Form 'B' for 1958-59. Another Statistical Assistant was deputed to Jaipur to organise an In-Service Training Course in Educational Statistics for the benefit of the employees of the University of Rajasthan and its affiliated colleges.

59 important enquiries were attended to during the period under review.

NATIONAL ARCHIVES

Acquisition

17 authenticated copies of bills of States assented to by the President, 1,469 files and 10 volumes of records were received. In addition, some papers relating to the Bengal Famine Inquiry Commission (1944-45) and some personal papers of Dr. N. B. Khare were received as gifts from Sir Manilal B. Nanavati and Dr. N. B. Khare respectively.

Repair and Rehabilitation

Of the thousands of sheets of records, maps, books etc. repaired and rehabilitated special mention may be made of the repair and binding of 8 volumes of the "*Indian Opinion*", 3 photostat volumes and a volume of the "Position of British Indian in Transvaal" for Shri Pyare Lal, a volume entitled "*Halnamai-i-Bayazid Ansari*" for the Muslim University, Aligarh, five sets of photostat papers of Gandhiji's correspondence for the Gandhi Smarak Nidhi and three laminated volumes for the Ministry of External Affairs.

Research and Reference

Information from records and other sources was supplied to Government agencies, private institutions and individuals and requisitions for records, maps, books, microfilm-reels etc. were attended to.

On an average 33 research scholars conducted research in the research room.

Amalgamation and consolidation of the records of the late Foreign and Political

Department and checking and verification of those of the Central India States Agency and Panjab States Agency were continued.

Technical and Advisory Service

Photo-duplication service was rendered, among others, to the International Academy of Indian Culture, New Delhi, the Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, Rabindra Sadan, Visva Bharati, the Deccan College, Poona, the National Museum, New Delhi, Dr. Retzlaff of Ford Foundation, Dr. S. F. Husain Khan of Baroda and Messrs. Charles H. Heimsath and Granville Austin, Research scholars from the American University, Washington and St. Antony's College Oxford, England.

Information on various aspects and problems of preservation of books and records etc., and copies of this Department's brochure entitled "Repair and Preservation of Records" were supplied to different offices and individuals.

Research Laboratory

Four samples of tissue paper and a few samples of *maida* received from different sources were tested with a view to ascertaining their suitability for repair of records and preparation of paste respectively.

Photo-Duplication

The microfilming of the series of records "Home Department Miscellaneous Series" was continued and 48,029 exposures were made. The microfilming of rare and precious manuscripts from the Raza Library, Rampur was also continued.

Publication

Further progress was made in printing volumes IV, VI and XV of the Fort-William-India House Correspondence and Part I of the volume on "Selections from Educational Records". Preparation of an index to the Foreign and Political Department's records (1781-83), compilation of Part II of the volume on "Selections from Educational Records" and revision of volume XI and compilation of volumes XII

and XIII of the Calender of Persian Correspondence were continued. Printed copies of volume XI of *The Indian Archives* were received from the press. A meeting of the Advisory Committee on the Publication of Educational Records was held and a programme was chalked out for publishing records relating to the period 1888-1921.

Indian Historical Records Commission

The 13th meeting of the National Committee of Archivists and the 30th meeting of the Research and Publication Committee were held on 6th and 8th July, 1960 respectively. The proceedings of the meeting of the Research and Publication Committee were distributed. A meeting of the Sub-Committee for Calendering Records of the 18th and 19th Centuries (other than those of the East India Company) in the custody of the Central and States Record-Offices was held on 7th July, 1960. A meeting of the National Register Committee was also held on 3rd September, 1960.

Training in Archive-Science

The One Year Diploma Course Trainees took their examination and were declared successful.

The Selection Committee of the Department interviewed 16 candidates for the new session of the Diploma Course Training started from 1st September, 1960 and selected 9 of them including the 5 selected for award of stipends of Rs. 150 per month each. The two candidates of the Government of Rajasthan and Bengal were also admitted to the Course.

Regional Office, Bhopal

The normal listing, repair and rehabilitation work was carried on and requisitions for files and volumes etc. attended to.

Facilities continued to be provided to the officials of the Gazetters' Unit of the Government of Madhya Pradesh to consult records in the record-room in connection with the revision of District Gazetteers.

education and the third plan—

a symposium

The symposium that follows, gives a bird's eye view of the country's educational programmes envisaged during the Third Five-Year Plan period. To enable the readers to know, at a glance, the financial allocations, progress and targets in the three Plans, a few tables have been appended to the symposium.

S. N. Saraf considers the educational requirements during the Third Plan and the financial outlay against the background of our achievement during the first two Plans. The contribution speaks for itself and provides the necessary information from which an idea could be formed of the direction of our educational effort. P. K. Roy concentrates his attention on Secondary Education and the problems arising from its reconstruction. The problem of providing adequate facilities for the education of the gifted, is the subject of Samuel Mathai's discussion while the question of Teacher Training is considered by E. A. Pires.

The contents of the symposium show how our educational problems have to be tackled from various angles and how, if there is to be any advance, there is need for constant re-thinking in the light of our experience and the country's growing needs.

—EDITOR

THE PLANS AT A GLANCE

FINANCIAL ALLOCATIONS

(Rs. in Crores)

Section	FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN		SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN		THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN
	Provision	Expenditure	Provision	Expenditure (After Appraisal)	Provision
Elementary Education	93.03	84.80	89.00	92.39	180.00
Secondary Education	21.94	20.20	51.00	50.87	90.00
University Education	15.47	13.70	57.00	45.39	75.00
Technical Education	22.75	20.20	48.00	52.28	130.00
Other Educational Schemes	15.87	14.00	62.00	34.07	25.00
TOTAL	169.06	152.90	307.00	275.00	500.00

PROGRESS AND TARGETS IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

ENROLMENT OF PUPILS

Age-group	1950-51		1955-56		1960-61		1965-66	
	N*	P**	N	P	N	P	N	P
6—11	192	42.7	252	51.0	330	60.0	504	80.0
11—14	31	12.9	43	16.3	61	22.6	100	30.0
14—17	12	5.4	20	8.1	30	12.6	44	15.0

*N Stands for Number of Pupils (In lakhs). **P Stands for Percentage of Children in Schools.

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS

Type of Institution	Number of Schools			
	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66
Primary/Junior Basic Schools	..	2,09,700	2,78,135	3,54,900
Middle/Senior Basic Schools	..	13,596	21,730	30,000
High/Higher Secondary Schools	..	7,288	10,838	14,000
Multipurpose Schools	367	1,600
				1,800

IT IS GENERALLY AGREED that development programmes of education should precede economic plans so that the latter could make their full contribution towards the well being of the mass of the people. The role of education is perhaps now more important than ever when it is realised that modern economic development calls for a wide diffusion of the scientific temper of mind, a sense of dignity in labour and a readiness to adapt new techniques and new knowledge to the needs of the people. The allocations for education in the plans reflect the earnestness and priorities attached to it in the development of the country's economy.

Outlay and Priorities

As against the likely expenditure of Rs. 153 crores in the First Plan on educational development programmes, it is expected that the expenditure during the Second Plan would be about Rs. 273 crores. For the Third Plan, the outlay tentatively provided is Rs. 500 crores. In addition to this development outlay on education it is estimated that roughly about Rs. 150 crores will be required annually for the maintenance of existing institutions in the Third Plan.

The programmes of the State Governments and the Centre for the Third Plan are being discussed currently and it may be premature to say whether there would be any change in the total allocations for education, its distribution between various sectors and the targets set out in different fields.

Some of the important targets of expansion and development under various sectors of educational development, are reviewed briefly in the following paras.

Elementary Education

One of the directives in the Constitution (1950) laid down that the State shall endeavour, within a period of ten years, to provide free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years. Providing schooling facilities for

over 80 million of children in this age-group is no mean task for a country like India where, in 1950-51, facilities were provided only for about 22 million of children in this age-group. The problem is aggravated when the increase in population is far more rapid than the usual expansion programme. It was realised that the Constitutional directives might be realised earlier than expected if, during the Third Plan, concentrated efforts were made to make provision for compulsory primary education.

The following table will indicate the present position about the provision of schooling facilities at the primary stage and the targets proposed :

(Figures in millions)

	Age-group 6-11		
	Population	Enrolment in classes I—V	Percentage of children atten- ing schools
1950—51	45	19	42.7
1955—56	49	25	51.0
1960—61	55	33	60.0
1965—66	63	50	80.0

Over 17 million of children will have to be brought to schools out of whom over 7 million would be girls which is a huge task. The plan provides for special programmes which would assist in bringing a large number of girls of backward areas and classes to schools. According to the above targets schooling facilities would be available for about 93 per cent of boys and 65 per cent of girls in 1965-66.

The next stage of education, where expansion of schooling facilities will take place, is the middle stage. With the expansion of facilities at the primary stage and the desire of

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people to continue the education of their children further it is evident that steps have to be taken to provide more facilities for the children in the age-group 11—14. It is also linked with the fulfilment of the Constitutional directive of providing education for all children up to the age of 14. The present position and the targets laid down for the Third Plan are indicated below :

(Figures in hundreds of thousand)

<i>Age group 11-14</i>			
<i>Population</i>	<i>Enrolment in</i>	<i>Percentage of</i>	
	<i>Classes VI-VIII</i>	<i>children</i>	
		<i>attending</i>	
		<i>schools</i>	
1950—51	243	31	12.9
1955—56	266	43	16.3
1960—61	272	61	22.6
1965—66	335	100	30.0

About 4 million of additional children will have to be enrolled during the Third Plan. Some specific programmes have been included in the plan so that a larger number of girls could come to the schools. By the end of the Second Plan the percentage of boys and girls attending the schools in this age-group is estimated to be 34 and 11 respectively. It is proposed that by the end of the Fifth Plan it should be possible to provide schooling facilities for all the children in this age-group and thus fulfil the directive in the Constitution.

By the end of the Second Plan about 24% of the elementary schools will be of the basic pattern. During the Third Plan all the teachers working in elementary schools, who will be non-basic trained will be given orientation courses. All the new training institutions, proposed to be established during the Third Plan, will be of the basic pattern. Thus the process of modelling of elementary schools on the basic pattern will be carried forward in the Third Plan.

Secondary Education

During the first two plans it is expected that about 7,000 high/higher secondary

schools will have been established as a result of the inevitable demand for the expansion of schooling facilities at the secondary stage of education. The existing position and also the targets of expansion of facilities laid down for the Third Plan is indicated below :

(Figures in hundreds of thousand)

	<i>Population</i>	<i>Enrolment</i>	<i>Percentage of</i>
	<i>in Classes</i>	<i>IX—XI</i>	<i>children attend-</i>
			<i>ing schools</i>
1950—51	226	12	5.4
1955—56	237	20	8.1
1960—61	262	30	12.0
1965—66	288	44	15.0

About 1.4 million of additional children will be enrolled during the Third Plan in high/higher secondary schools. There is considerable disparity in regard to the provision of schooling facilities for boys and girls at this stage of education as well. While the facilities would be provided for 12 per cent of children in the age-group 14—17, the percentage of boys and girls attending schools would be 24.5 and 6.7 respectively. In order to enrol a large number of girls in the schools, the plan provides for some special programmes for girls' education.

One of the important targets laid down is that by the end of the Third Plan about 50 per cent of the 18,000 high/higher secondary schools, which are estimated to be in position by 1965-66, will be of the higher secondary pattern, as against about 22 per cent by the end of 1960-61. Necessary steps are being taken to arrange for the training of teachers to staff these institutions. The multi-purpose schools set up by the end of the Second Plan are proposed to be further strengthened and improved by the provision of additional courses and equipment and necessary staff.

One of the objectives of the Third Plan is to expand the facilities for science education. At the secondary stage this is sought to be done by introducing general science

courses in all the schools by providing special assistance for laboratories and training of teachers. In addition to this, the intention is to provide facilities for the teaching of science of a higher standard in about 4,000 schools. Apart from the provision of laboratories the main difficulty in expanding science teaching is the lack of adequately qualified and trained teachers. It has been estimated that more than 6,000 science teachers will be required to carry out a programme of this order. Steps are being taken to meet the shortage of science teachers. The Third Plan also provides for carrying out research in the field of education at various levels.

Requirements of Teachers and Training Programmes

For implementing the programmes of expansion of school education during the Third Plan it has been estimated that about 5,00,000 additional elementary school teachers and about 80,000 additional secondary school teachers will be required. Adequate provision has therefore been made for the training of teachers. The existing position and the targets regarding percentage of trained teachers by the end of the Third Plan would be as under :—

1950-51 1955-56 1960-61 1965-66

Elementary				
School Teachers	58.8	61.0	63.0	80.0
Secondary				
School Teachers	53.8	59.2	65.0	75.0

University Education

There has been rapid expansion of enrolment at the college and university stage. The number of arts and science colleges would be about 1,100 in 1960-61 as against 746 in 1955-56. The enrolment in those institutions has also increased from 634,000 in 1955-56 to about 9,00,000 during 1960-61. One of the problems which is causing concern is that, while there has been expansion of facilities on the whole, the proportion of science students will have slightly declined. One of the main targets set out is to expand facilities for the teaching of science so that the percentage of science students at this stage, rises from 30 in 1960-61 to 40 in 1965-66. This would mean arranging for 250,000 additional places in colleges and universities. The programme of conversion of existing colleges into three-year degree course colleges will be continued. Besides, it is proposed to expand facilities for post-graduate work and research, provide scholarships, staff quarters and hostels. For these programmes assistance would be available to the colleges, universities and State Governments from the Centre. In order to reduce the pressure on universities and colleges, it is proposed to establish evening colleges and institute correspondence courses and external examinations on a large scale.

Technical Education

In the field of technical education there has been considerable expansion during the Second Plan. The present position is indicated below :

Year	Colleges			Polytechnics		
	No. of institutions	Sanctioned annual intake	Outturn	No. of Institutions	Sanctioned annual intake	Outturn
1950	49	4,119	2,198	86	5,903	2,478
1955	65	5,888	4,017	114	10,484	4,499
1960	97	13,165	5,310	197	24,020	10,397

During the Third Plan, it is proposed to increase the annual intake of degree students by 6,000 of which 5,000 will be by admission to the engineering colleges and 1,000 by training through part-time and correspondence courses. Similarly it is proposed to increase annual intake of diploma students by 15,000; 10,000 by admission to polytechnics and 5,000 through part-time and correspondence courses. There is acute

shortage of teachers in technical institutions. With the proposed schemes of training fellowships in selected engineering colleges and foreign studentships for graduates who return to teaching posts and improvement in the salary scales of teachers, it is expected that the present shortage will be reduced to a great extent. Provision for scholarships, staff quarters and hostels is proposed to be increased during the Third Plan.

II

EVER SINCE THE PUBLICATION of the report of the Secondary Education Commission in 1953 educators have been discussing the special characteristics of this stage of education. It is generally felt that the importance of secondary education was sufficiently realised neither by the teachers nor by the administrators. It is true that it is a stage leading to university education but it is also a terminal point for a vast majority of students. Secondary education is also responsible for supplying teachers to the primary schools. On the thoroughness of the secondary curriculum depends the quality of primary teachers.

That the Five-Year Plans consider this stage of education important is evident from the fact that expenditure under this head has grown from 21.94 crores in the First Plan to 90 crores (tentative provision) in the Third Plan. The increase is more than four times. In the case of primary education similar increase in expenditure is only twice.

The accepted pattern of secondary education today is the eleven-year school called the higher secondary school. This means that all new schools to be opened will conform to this type. The existing high schools are being converted into higher secondary. It is expected that by the end of the Third Plan period fifty per cent of all secondary schools will be of the higher secondary type. Of a total of

14,000 secondary schools at the end of the Second Five-Year Plan about 1,500 are multipurpose schools. The development of multipurpose schools has been a slow process because of a number of difficulties.

The draft outline of the Third Five-Year Plan emphasises three aspects of the educational re-organisation at the secondary stage: (a) Increasing facilities for science education; (b) Improving multipurpose schools established during the Second Plan period and increasing their number to a limited extent; (c) Setting up new secondary schools as higher secondary institutions.

The number of secondary schools is expected to increase to 18,000 by the end of the Third Plan. The proportion of pupils in the age group 14-17 attending secondary schools will increase from about 5 per cent before the First Plan to about 12 per cent by 1960-61. Even if the expected expansion is achieved by the end of the Third Plan the proportion of children attending secondary schools will be increased only by three per cent or so. This low percentage is accounted for by the paucity of girl students in our secondary schools.

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Facilities for Science Education

With the expansion of educational facilities and industry there has been a marked increase in the demand for science personnel. The planners, accordingly, are taking steps to produce more of such technical personnel as would be demanded in the near future for meeting the needs of the economic and technical projects. What is not emphasised, however, is the poor quality of science personnel in many fields. There is also a great deal of wastage. It would be interesting to study the question against the background of failures in the universities in recent years.

The Science Departments of the Universities are not happy about the state of affairs in the schools so far as science teaching goes. What is the actual condition? A majority of our schools do not have proper laboratories. Even where laboratories exist, they do not provide adequate facilities for practical work. Many of our teachers believe that a good demonstration accompanied by intelligent exposition is all that the students need. If experience in the advanced countries is any guide, intensive practical work is essential for making many of the concepts clear and for making science teaching meaningful to the students.

In this country we do not have a tradition of sound academic work of the grammar school type. In the English grammar school science is treated with as much care as it is done in the Universities. The best teachers are recruited and the laboratory facilities are excellent. We cannot hope to develop our higher secondary schools on that line immediately. The recruitment of suitable teachers is a great problem. Although teaching in the higher secondary demands the services of M.Sc. teachers, many schools can recruit only B.Sc. teachers. It will take some time before the higher secondary schools are properly organised so that they may take over the function of the present intermediate classes. These schools will need to win the confidence of the Universities in

regard to their academic standard. To do this they will need to have well qualified teachers (M.Sc. or Honours in Science) and elaborate laboratories. It is obvious that facilities can not be made available to all the higher secondary schools at the same time. Certain institutions should be specially developed where the standard of science teaching will be high. In large cities it is possible to locate a well equipped laboratory in a central place so that more schools can make use of it. Such an arrangement has worked satisfactorily in some of the Western countries.

The Directorate of Extension Programmes in Secondary Education has started a project of establishing science clubs in different areas of the country. The purpose of these clubs is to encourage students to take greater interest in science. These clubs offer opportunities to those students who do not have adequate facilities for science education. These are not merely supplementary to the regular school instruction but under appropriate leadership these clubs may discover science talents among the student population. In the Third Plan it is proposed to increase the number of these clubs.

The difficulty of recruiting suitable teachers has been already mentioned. It will be necessary to improve the quality of science teachers through various inservice education programmes. It may be a good idea to send some of these teachers to refresher courses at the universities during long vacations with a view to making them up to date in the subject matter. This however does not solve the problem of teachers who would be teaching general science. Separate training programmes will be needed for them.

Improving Multipurpose Schools

The multipurpose school differs from the ordinary school in its wider scope of subjects. It claims to remove "all invidious distinctions between students preparing for different courses of studies, breaking down the sense of inferiority that is associated

with vocational subjects and makes it possible to plan the educational system on a truly democratic basis". The multipurpose school has another advantage. It can take care of the pupil who has selected a wrong course for his study because transfer from one course to another is always easy within the same school.

The multipurpose school programme includes technical and commercial courses but they are primarily educational. These courses would be concerned with vocational training only in so far as preparation for vocation is an integral part of education which helps the individual to grow to his full stature. In this sense it is in conformity with the philosophy of Basic education. The different parts of the programme, core as well as the specialised subjects, will help the pupils to develop into co-operative, adaptable and responsible human beings. The training received in this connection would be useful for those who want to enter industry or a professional course. The multipurpose school has not yet taken firm root in our soil. It will take some time before the idea becomes a little more real even for the teachers. To improve instruction in these new schools a number of conditions has to be fulfilled.

- (a) The pupil should be given proper guidance in different parts of the course. This choice should be as far as possible in conformity with "age, ability and aptitude of the child". Since guidance is such an important aspect of the problem a number of States with the help from the Centre set up Bureaux of Guidance in different parts of the country. The University Departments of Education and the Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance can offer useful programmes for training the scientific workers in the field of guidance. In fact some of them are already doing so. In the Third Plan when the States launch upon

their own projects they can organise training programmes in their own areas. It will be necessary to see that all the multipurpose schools can have on their staff career masters or psychologists.

- (b) Although students will be allocated to different courses only in class IX the previous two classes should be used for diagnostic purposes. The child should be observed closely and the results recorded on the cumulative record for future reference. If observation is close and accurate there will be very few misfits in higher classes.
- (c) The difficulty of recruiting suitably trained teachers will be there for some time to come. For technical subjects many of the teachers would be untrained. Even many of the science teachers would be untrained. Inservice training will have to be arranged for these teachers. In 1955 an Extension Service Programme was started in 24 training colleges and later extended to 54 training colleges. Long and short term courses, conferences, workshops and seminars should be arranged through these extension centres so that a large number of teachers are covered by such an extensive programme.
- (d) The teachers connected with the teaching of technical subjects should have enough practical experience so that the courses have a bias towards practical things. This means that there should be a link with the industry. A number of experienced persons from the industry should be recruited to the staff for teaching these subjects.
- (e) A subject or a group of subjects should not be offered till the school has proper laboratory or workshop facilities.

- (f) It is important to see that staffing ratio is liberal so that individual attention to pupils is possible. Teacher's work goes beyond giving instructions in various subjects. He should be able to give personal guidance whenever it is needed. This is possible only if the school has a tutorial system. Every boy entering the school should be placed under the charge of one of the teachers and should normally remain under him during the whole of his school career.
- (g) The school should make adequate arrangements for character education. The committee on Religious and Moral Instruction suggested the following in this connection.
 - (i) The Morning Assembly should observe two minutes' silence followed by readings from the Scriptures or great literature of the world or an appropriate address.
 - (ii) The essential teachings of the great religions should be studied as part of the curriculum pertaining to social studies and history.
 - (iii) One hour a week should be assigned to moral instruction.
 - (iv) Organised social service during holidays and outside class hours should be an essential part of extra-curricular activities. Such service should teach the dignity of manual labour, love of humanity, patriotism and self-discipline.
 - (v) The Committee also suggested that qualities of character and behaviour should form an essential part of the over-all assessment of a pupil's performance at school.

Examination Reforms

Although most educators are fully aware of the defects of an external examination they want to improve the situation by introducing reforms rather than by abolition of external examination. An examination unit attached to the Directorate of Extension Programme is working in close co-operation with the States to improve the situation. This unit is holding large number of workshops and training courses for teachers and others engaged in secondary education with a view to acquainting them with the modern concepts and techniques in the field of education. Since examination is the final stage of an educational programme, any reform in this field should be connected with those in the field of curriculum and instruction.

The teachers should not only know the purpose of evaluation but their awareness should be reflected in the teaching methods they adopt. Since internal assessment is going to play an important part in future, teachers should be trained in the improved techniques of evaluation. Although there has been much discussion about the unreliability of teacher's assessment we should remember that we can make a beginning by trusting teachers. Continuous inservice education can surely improve the quality of evaluation by them. Provision has been made in the Third Plan for setting up evaluation units in the various States. A group of these evaluation officers recently attended a training course on Evaluation in Delhi.

The examination reforms will raise many difficult questions of which internal assessment is one. The Boards of Secondary Education all over the country will have to consider whether they will continue the present practice of holding external examinations in all the subjects at the same time or they will resort to staggering the examination so that students will take the examination in two or more parts. There is also the question of lightening the language load by making the assessment of some of the languages internal. The

courses in such cases would finish one year earlier than the rest. It is desirable that the States follow their own plans in the development of multipurpose schools instead of conforming to a common pattern. To do this educational research should be allowed to play an important part in our educational development. Already some of the more progressive States have established Bureaux of Educational or Psycho-

logical Research. It is expected that in the Third Plan these institutions will contribute substantially to the progress of education in this country. If able people can be attracted to research much improvement can be effected in a short period in all aspects of school instruction—curriculum, teaching methods, accommodation, equipments, school activities, discipline, human relationship and examination.

III

TO SAY THAT ALL MEN ARE CREATED equal may be true in a legal or theological sense, but in actual fact the abilities and talents of individuals vary very greatly, and in a free society it should be the aim of the educational system to help each individual to develop his or her particular abilities and to fulfil the promise that is in him or her. Only in a system of universal education can this be done in any degree of completeness. In a democracy, leadership should lie with those who have been found specially worthy and gifted through a process of sifting in which every citizen has an equal chance. The gifted in a democracy are not those who start with any social or economic privileges but those who, in the slow process of maturation, have proved to have special talents.

Educating the Talented

In order, therefore, to educate the talented minority at a sufficiently high level, we must make sure that we are able to select this minority from the entire population of the country; in other words it should be one of the aims of educational development in India in the next Plan period and in periods to follow to put all children in the country into schools. Until we have compulsory primary education which should be free for the large majority, if not for all, we cannot be sure that those who are able to go up for higher education are in fact the most talented in our community.

The process of selection of the talented students should begin at the earliest stages of education and should continue all the way. In order that the identification of the talented may be as reliable as we can make it, we should not depend on any one method of identification but should use a variety of means. Results of examinations are an important means of such identification. But these alone are not sufficient. The young child in the early stages of education and the older boy or girl in the later stages should be under constant observation and the academically talented student should satisfy a variety of tests.

In an economically handicapped society, such as ours, it should be the aim of any educational plan of development to make it possible for the talented boy or girl to go on from one stage of education to the next by providing the student with necessary financial support. In most of the advanced countries of the world, there is an ever-increasing system of scholarships, bursaries and other public or private means of support for qualified students. In many American universities and colleges, apart from arrangements like remission of tuition fees or actual grants of scholarships and Fellow-

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ships, there are also arrangements organized by the institution to enable willing students to undertake various kinds of part-time employment for which the student is paid. It is thus made possible that almost everyone who has the ability and the will can go through a university education without having to depend on financial support from parents or relatives. The economic backwardness of a country will naturally be reflected in the ability of the State to organise any elaborate system of scholarships. But it should be a conscious objective of every Plan even in a relatively poor country like ours to increase opportunities for higher education for the gifted among students by providing financial assistance and opportunities for earning while the student is still at school or college. The problem in our country is of such magnitude that it is unrealistic to expect that in the course of the next Five-Year Plan we shall have worked out a system of equalization of opportunity at the school stage and shall have provided for the education of any considerable proportion of the academically talented at the university stage. But a conscious step can be taken in this direction by clarifying our aims and objectives and by applying the available means more systematically to these aims and objectives.

Resources and Their Utilisation

It is difficult to determine, on any basis that would be unanimously accepted, what proportion of the resources of a country should be applied for educational development. It usually happens that when the objectives are limited and the provision made is small we are not able fully to utilize even the available resources. This may seem paradoxical but would be readily understood by those who have had executive and financial responsibility in relation to plan projects. The complicated procedure with its checks and counterchecks that we adopt in India in our administration often makes it difficult to use up to the last naya paisa even the limited allocation of funds that are made for various

purposes, as would be evident from the figures of financial provision and actual expenditure in the field of education during the First and Second Five-Year Plans.

I have no doubt that if the allocations for various educational purposes were a great deal larger our spending would have been larger too. It is proper therefore to ask whether we are planning educational development in India in a sufficiently large and imaginative way, bearing in mind that a democracy can only function effectively when the entire population is able to read and write, and whether persons with ability have the maximum opportunity to use their ability. I am glad to find that the tentative allocations in the Third Five-Year Plan for the various stages of education are considerably higher than in the Second Plan. It must, of course, be remembered that our numbers are growing and costs are rising; and that therefore the increased allocation does not signify quite what the figures in themselves would seem to suggest. Nevertheless to the extent to which these figures make possible an actual expansion of education in the lower stages and improvement of quality at the higher stages, we should be thankful. I doubt, however, whether India can really hope to develop an educational system worthy of her cultural and intellectual history and adequate to her rapidly developing needs without a more daring policy of financial outlay for education.

Education for Leadership

Going on now to consider education for leadership in our country I may say that at present the situation in our universities is far from satisfactory. In the professional fields of education such as medicine, engineering, agriculture and some of the other applied sciences, we do exercise a fairly careful selective process and the two Five-Year Plans have enabled us to bring about considerable improvements in the conditions of such education and the quality of the training given as well as in the number of persons trained. We do not

have as yet a system of educational counselling and guidance in India and quite frequently students are selected for various kinds of higher education solely on the basis of marks obtained in examinations. I am not sure that this will ensure that at least a good proportion of those who enter upon these courses of study will in fact have the qualities of leadership. Leadership in a democracy means a sense of social responsibility and obligation, the willingness to bear responsibility as it may devolve upon one, and the ability to observe the needs of one's society and age and to apply oneself for the fulfilment of those needs. In order that the men and women whom we train in our professional and technical institutions may have such a sense of leadership, it is necessary to see that they have not only the necessary intellectual aptitude but also have the right emotional and social qualities.

When we come to the areas of what might be called 'liberal education' in the humanities, social sciences and the natural sciences, we find that, by and large, there is no strict selective process in terms of academic ability and no adequate attempt to train the large numbers who enter these courses of study in our universities to a sense of social and national responsibility, I say, by and large, because there are some colleges where there is a very severe selection process and only the very best students are able to get in. A good liberal education can be a very good training for leadership in society. A man who has been taught to ponder over human destiny and man's age-long attempt to bring order and meaning in a chaotic world should be capable of taking his place in his generation with the kind of awareness that is necessary for true leadership. If our students remembered that they represent a minority of two per cent amongst the youth of their country and have therefore a tremendous responsibility towards the society that enabled them to enter upon an educational process that is denied to the majority, the whole life of our universities could be changed for the better. But training of

young people for social responsibility is not a matter merely of sentiments and attitudes but involves the provision of facilities for such training. Students should be well read and this requires good libraries and good librarians, and conditions in which students are enabled to spend long hours in reading. A great many of our colleges are extremely ill-equipped in this matter. Teaching methods also have a bearing on this. In a great many of our institutions, students are not under compulsion to study systematically as there is no system of regular assignment of work and of setting down in writing the results of their reading regularly or of discussing them with their teachers or fellow-students.

Relating Education to Realities

Again very little effort is made to relate academic studies to the realities of life in the contemporary world. The student of economics, for instance, may know economic theories but may be unaware of the actual economic problems of his country and of the world in his day. A student of history may know the dates of ancient wars but may be unaware of the history that is being made all around him. The student of physics may know all about some of the physical laws but may be ignorant of the developments that are taking place in science every day and their influence on social and political life. This kind of isolation and aloofness from reality has made the word "academic" almost a word of disrepute and persons trained in this manner frequently find themselves unable to relate their learning to the problems of living in the contemporary world. Educating the gifted should mean educating people in vital relationship with the realities of life. To do this effectively we shall have to do a great deal more than merely provide lecture-rooms, in which lecturers mechanically pump inert information into uninterested students. Rich and vital social life in the college and the university is as important as the provision of mechanical and formal facilities such as libraries and laboratories and lecture-rooms.

In India the problem of leadership is more complicated than in many other countries of the world because of the size of our country and its population, and the multiplicity of languages, cultures and other things that make our society so heterogeneous. A true leader in India should have an acquaintance with the variety and multiplicity of conditions and problems in this country; and I feel that a good university education should include opportunities of travel and of meeting students of other regions. They should develop an interest in languages other than their own.

Massive Aid to Selected Institutions

All these things translated into academic practice would mean a considerable outlay of money, even if we attempted to make a rigid selection of the more highly talented amongst our university students and gave them a better training than would be available for the rest. In financial terms the sum of Rs. 75 crore provided in the Third Five-Year Plan for higher education in India (apart from technical and professional education) is woefully inadequate to attempt any real improvement in our educational practices. We cannot train our youths if those who train them are miserably paid and treated as though they were of no significance in society. We cannot train any *elite* in the modern world if we are unable to confront them with the richness and wonder of modern civilization with all its scientific and technological development.

I am inclined to think that the only thing we can do during the Third Five-Year Plan as a partial attempt to train some of our youths for leadership is to select a few of our institutions of higher education in various parts of the country and give them as massive aid as we possibly can so that teachers and students in these institutions could really attempt to produce a first-class educational organization. In spite of all the faults that people now see in the public school system in England, there is no doubt that these

schools contributed to the education of the gifted in that country. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge and many of the universities of Europe and later of the United States were in fact places where a select few were trained. In all these places, new social forces have entered and there are egalitarian urges of various kinds at work. Nevertheless, the reputation and prestige of many of these institutions have made possible their continued existence as places where the most talented can be trained to take the responsibilities of leadership in the changing patterns of social organization. Even so in our country, I think, instead of merely attempting to keep going many institutions of higher learning that seem to be barely ticking over, it would be worth while developing a few superior institutions to which by a system of adequate scholarships, the best students of the country can be sent; and which can be called upon to demand of these students more than the minimum required in a normal university education and challenge them to the best performance of which they are capable. It would be necessary in such an attempt, also to give to these institutions the maximum academic freedom, so that they can devise their own courses of study and try their own experiments in educational methods and techniques. It would be necessary for the States and for the Centre to have a liberal system of grants-in-aid for such institutions. One must hope that such institutions would act as a constant spur to the other institutions to improve themselves and to raise their standards of performance.

To sum up, then we need a more careful selective process in our universities and colleges and we need also to attempt to identify within the total university population the more specially gifted students so that they may be encouraged to rise to the heights of which they are capable. All education costs money and good education costs more. It may be too late in the day to suggest reappropriations in our Third Plan so that more money could be

found for education; but it is not too late to plan for a more fruitful utilisation of available resources so that the best results can be obtained. It must also be hoped that it will be possible for our planners to enter into a serious discussion on the relation of education to nation-building. A

nation does not advance merely by the mechanical piling up of goods of one kind or another. People who have no vision perish and we must seek to create men of vision even while we seek to create material goods that are necessary for the enrichment of life.

IV

IN THE CHAPTER ON 'Human Resources and Social Services' in the draft outline of the Third Five-Year Plan there are two sections devoted to education, one dealing with general education and the other with technical education. The section on general education has, among other subsections, three that deal with elementary education, secondary education and university education respectively. These three sections are all covered in the brief space of seven pages, and in these pages there are references to the programme of teacher training to be taken up during the Third Five-Year Plan period. In this article I propose to indicate the kinds of facilities for teacher education that the Plan seeks to provide and to offer some suggestions for the expansion and improvement of teacher education during this period.

In any educational expansion the training of teachers has to be given sufficient consideration and the Third Five-Year Plan has tried to devote some attention to the needs of teacher education.

The Primary Teacher

To begin with the field of elementary education, the Plan seeks to provide elementary education to about 80 per cent of the children in the age group 6 to 11. For implementing this programme, it is estimated that 400,000 additional teachers will be required and provision will have to be made for securing these teachers. However, it is realised that it will not be possible during the Third Plan to have all the teachers in the primary

schools trained. It is estimated that by 1965 80 per cent of such teachers would be trained, and it is proposed that for the rest short-term courses should be provided. This is the least that ought to be attempted because primary school teachers do need some kind of training specially in view of their low academic qualifications. It is imperative, however, that these courses should be very carefully planned and that they should not be so short that they are virtually ineffective.

A significant proposal is that during the Third Plan period the duration of all regular courses of teacher education should be uniformly extended to two years; but it might be pointed out that at the recent National Seminar on Teacher Education several States made it clear that it would not be possible for them to extend the duration of their training courses for primary teachers beyond one year. In view of the fact that a one-year course is very inadequate for teachers who have in many cases not studied beyond the middle or senior basic school, great efforts will have to be made to help the economically backward States to step up the duration of their training course to two years. It is my considered opinion that the greatest weakness of our educational system is the very poor quality of our primary

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schools which, in turn, seriously affects the quality of work in our secondary schools. An effective training of our primary school teachers is the surest guarantee of good teaching in our primary schools, and every effort made in this direction is a worthwhile investment.

One of the important steps taken during the Second Plan period in respect of the training of elementary teachers has been the conversion of training institutions at this level to the Basic pattern. It is expected that by 1961 about 70 per cent of all elementary teacher training institutions in the country will be Basic. It is further expected that the remaining institutions will also be so oriented before the end of the Third Plan. At any rate, it is proposed that all new teacher training institutions should be of the Basic type. While this conversion is in progress, it will be worthwhile to do a little stock taking to ensure that such conversion is producing a better type of teacher than the older programme of teacher education.

It is proposed during the Third Plan period to orient all old and new elementary schools towards the Basic pattern by enabling them to "take up such activities of basic schools as can be carried out with maximum community effort and with the measure of State assistance that could be made available for the purpose under the Plan". This statement in the draft outline of the Plan appears to leave the whole programme a little too vague. There is no possibility of gauging the extent of community assistance that would be forthcoming; neither is there any indication of the measure of state assistance that would be made available. There is no indication either of the steps that would be taken to orient all non-Basic trained teachers in the principles and methods of basic education to enable this programme of orientation to succeed.

For successful orientation, the States would need to draw up a definite, systematic and phased programme of in-service education. The Plan refers to the establishment of extension departments in a number of train-

ing schools; but, as the recent National Seminar disclosed, the provision that has been made for the opening of such departments is extremely meagre and very inadequate to meet the needs of orienting all non-Basic schools to the Basic pattern even with the limited objective of introducing those features of Basic education that are relatively inexpensive. Experience has shown that for any type of reorientation, if it is to be effective and to produce quick results, it is far better to work with the entire staff of a school than to get selected teachers from a large number of schools to a seminar or a workshop. The possibility of organizing 'mobile' orientation squads which will visit non-Basic schools to reorient teachers to the Basic pattern may, therefore, be considered by the state authorities.

The draft recognises that there are shortcomings even in the existing Basic institutions and feels that much effort will be required in ensuring adequate training in the principles and techniques of Basic education. This is an important aspect of the general problem of improvement of elementary education and a great deal of thought will have to be given to it. Besides improving the courses in teacher education—for this purpose, the recommendations of the recent National Seminar on Teacher Education will be very helpful—early steps will need to be taken to enhance the minimum educational qualification of primary school teachers from 'middle passed' to the secondary school certificate.

Meeting Shortage of Science Teachers

Coming to secondary education, the Plan lays great emphasis on the expansion of facilities for science education. By the end of the Third Plan the number of secondary schools is expected to increase to 18,000; but at the end of the Second Plan there will be only 11,500 schools having facilities for science education. It is proposed to introduce general science courses during the Third Plan period in all the 18,000 schools by providing special assistance for laboratories and for the training of teachers. Be-

sides the course in general science, it is also hoped that science as an elective subject will be offered in about 4,000 of the schools offering courses in general science. For this purpose properly qualified and trained teachers will have to be found. It is proposed to provide special training courses for science teachers and laboratory assistants; but no indication is given in the draft outline of the nature of these training courses. There are two possible steps, among others, that might be adopted to meet the shortage of science teachers; and these are indicated here for the consideration of the appropriate authorities.

One step could be to apprentice science graduates to experienced science teachers in schools, requiring such apprentice teachers to do half the amount of teaching that would normally be done by a fully trained graduate and permitting him to use the other half for professional studies which would include the techniques of science teaching and a condensed course of educational theory and educational psychology. It should be possible for the Association of Principals of Training Colleges to draw up the outlines of such a course. Such apprentice teachers may be permitted, in the first instance, to appear for a certificate examination in teaching; later on, through additional courses taken at a teachers' college during the vacations, they may appear for the regular degree or diploma examination in teaching. In this connection I should like to stress the need for organizing vacation courses at our teachers' colleges, for attending which students may be given credit points which should be counted for meeting the requirements of a degree examination in education.

Another helpful step could be to organize a two-year concurrent course in science and education leading to the M.Sc. degree in Science Education. Graduates of such a course, if it is carefully framed, should be quite competent to teach the higher secondary classes. The training colleges should have no difficulty in organizing such courses in collaboration with the science faculties of

universities or science departments of colleges which have provision for teaching at the M.Sc. level.

The draft outline takes cognizance of the difficulty of obtaining trained teachers for the various elective courses in the multi-purpose schools providing practical instruction. For this reason, and because the main emphasis in the Third Plan in respect of multi-purpose schools would be on improving and developing the institutions already started, it is proposed to set up four regional training colleges, with model multi-purpose schools attached to them, to meet the requirements of teachers for the multi-purpose schools. This is a move in the right direction because it should be possible to give more effective training in such specialised institutions than in the general run of training colleges, provided, of course, that these special institutions are adequately staffed and equipped.

The Higher Secondary Teacher

Whereas by the end of the Second Plan period there will be just about 2,550 higher secondary schools, it is proposed to raise this number by the end of the Third Plan period to 9,000 which would amount to only about one half of the total number of secondary schools. In this case too, as in the case of the multi-purpose schools, it will be necessary to find teachers who are competent to teach the higher secondary classes. Up till this time the general practice has been to have trained M.A.'s to handle the top class of the higher secondary school. It is worth considering whether in such subjects as history, geography, civics, economics and languages, graduates with a first or a second division and with some experience of teaching could handle the higher secondary classes. My own feeling is that this should be possible, specially if the teachers are prepared to take some additional content courses either during or after their period of training. The teachers' colleges could be asked to draw up these content courses specially geared to the needs of teachers of the higher secondary school

classes. I am inclined to think that such specially designed courses might be even more helpful to teachers than the courses prescribed for the M.A. examination. Another expedient that should be even more satisfactory is a two-year concurrent academic and professional course leading to the M.A. degree in Education on the lines of the Master's degree in Science Education referred to earlier. I should like to suggest to the University of Delhi to experiment with these two courses, provided, of course, the Delhi Board of Higher Secondary Education is prepared to recognize such teachers as qualified to teach the eleventh class of the higher secondary school.

There is no reference in the draft Plan to the programme of in-service education for secondary school teachers that has been developed during the Second Plan period in fifty four teachers' colleges in the country. This is a programme that has made a very definite impact on the schools that have come under its influence. Thousands of teachers in what have come to be called 'extension schools' have been made aware of the progressive trends in secondary education and have been helped to adopt more effective methods of teaching. It is therefore to be hoped that every secondary teachers' college in the country will be encouraged and helped in the Third Plan period to develop an effective programme of in-service education. An annual expenditure of Rs. 18,000 on an extension service department in a teachers' college is a very sound investment considering the benefits that accrue to the schools through the activities of a well-organized department.

Considering the general condition of our secondary schools to-day, I would be tempted to encourage our teachers' colleges, constituted as they are at present, to concentrate on programmes of in-service education rather than dabble in third rate research which many of them are tempted to do. The latter takes us nowhere, whereas the former definitely helps to improve the quality of teaching in the schools. Effective research

needs personnel of a superior calibre which is not to be found in any appreciable measure in the general run of teachers' colleges in this country which recruit people primarily to train school teachers and then expect them not only to participate in more advanced teaching at the M.Ed. level but also to conduct research. We need to disabuse ourselves of the illusory idea that our teachers' colleges to-day are generally competent to conduct worthwhile research. If educational research needs to be done, let us first organize our teachers' colleges for the purpose by staffing them adequately and by providing the necessary facilities for research.

Training of University Teacher

Adverting to the field of university education, one of the main tasks in the Third Plan period will be to expand facilities for the teaching of science so that the proportion of science students is raised to about 40 per cent. This will mean a great effort to obtain the necessary personnel for teaching, and we are told that the University Grants Commission is devoting special attention to this problem. This will not be an easy problem to solve unless a career in teaching for science graduates is made sufficiently attractive. I for one do not see any reason why science teachers, both at the secondary school level and at the university, should not be paid better than other teachers. As it is, we pay certain categories of teachers like art teachers and physical training instructors less than others. When a commodity is in short supply we are always prepared to pay more for it; and science teachers to-day are in very short supply, so that at least for some time to come we should be prepared to pay them more than teachers of the humanities.

The draft refers to the several measures which have been initiated in recent years to improve the quality of university education and which, it is proposed, to continue during the Third Plan period, in some cases on an even larger scale. Among these measures, which include improve-

ment of the teacher-pupil ratio, improvement of libraries and laboratories, provision of hostel facilities and other amenities for students, and organization of tutorials and seminars, there is no reference to courses of training for university teachers. I am one of those who believe in the efficacy of training for all teachers including university teachers, specially in view of the comparative immaturity of the university student in India as well as the junior lecturer in a college. If a fresh untrained M.A. or M.Sc. is regarded as unqualified to teach the final class of the higher secondary school, I cannot understand how he can be regarded as qualified to teach the first year class at college. I have no doubt in my mind that better results would be obtained in the undergraduate classes if the teachers teaching these classes were required to undergo a brief and intensive course of training. With the increasing emphasis on newer techniques of teaching such as tutorials, seminars, assignments and discussions, it has become necessary for college teachers to master these techniques if their teaching is to be successful. Even straightforward lecturing is an art which cannot be acquired in a hurry and into which it is very helpful to be carefully initiated. I would, therefore, put in a strong plea for the organization of special courses of training for all new recruits to university teaching.

Other Implications

There are two brief but important references in the section on general education in the draft outline—one on Moral and Social Values in Education and another on National Service—which have implications for teacher education.

The plan refers to the need to give greater attention to the question of inculcating moral and social values among students at all stages of education. A special committee appointed by the Ministry of Education has made proposals which have been accepted by the Central Advisory Board of Education. These include

"suggestions for the preparation of suitable texts designed to stimulate interest and faith in moral and social ideals, the imparting of moral instruction and arrangements for organized social service involving participation in community work." If these proposals are ultimately implemented, it will be very necessary to make provision for the training of teachers who will be entrusted with this responsibility. The preparation of suitable texts in moral and social education is a difficult enough problem; but the solution of this problem will not by itself guarantee the successful inculcation of moral and social values among students unless the right kind of teachers can be found for the job. This is a responsibility that our teachers' colleges will have to shoulder in the near future.

The other reference is to the scheme of compulsory national service for school leavers "with a view to improving the quality of educated manpower" in the country. This will be sought to be achieved by "channelling the energies of youth to socially fruitful purposes and bringing to the students an intellectual and emotional awareness of and identification with the various tasks of social and economic reconstruction and security of the country." The special committee appointed by the Ministry of Education to study and report on the ways and means of implementing this idea has suggested a threefold programme: (i) a course of military training, (ii) opportunities for social service, and (iii) a programme of general education. For the effective execution of the last of these three programmes, teachers will have to be specially and carefully trained and once again the responsibility for this will devolve on the secondary teachers' colleges. As the period of national service will precede the university course, teachers in charge of the general education programme will have an excellent opportunity to train students in the techniques of self study and to help them to develop right study habits. The teachers themselves will have to be trained in the use of instructional methods appropriate for this level, such as the organi-

zation of committees and discussion groups, the holding of tutorials, seminars and symposia, the conduct of surveys and the use of assignments.

A word about the provision of teaching personnel for technical education would not be out of place here. The draft of the Third Plan provides for a significant expansion of facilities for technical education with an increased emphasis on mechanical, electrical and chemical engineering as well as specialised training in the fields of mining, metallurgy and other technologies. The draft outline recognises the difficulty in the expansion of technical education caused by the shortage of teachers which, at present, is of the order of about 33 per cent in degree colleges and about 25 per cent in diploma institutions. To meet this problem, the schemes of training fellowships in selected engineering colleges and foreign studentships for graduates who return to teaching posts which were initiated in the Second Plan will continue in the Third Plan. It is also expected that higher salary scales recommended by the All-India Council for Technical Education will also attract larger numbers to this profession.

The plan for technical education in-

cludes provision for the setting up of 100 junior technical schools as adjuncts to polytechnics in addition to the 25 that were started during the Second Plan period. The need for such technical schools besides the multipurpose schools offering courses in the technical stream cannot be overlooked; but at the same time it is necessary to ensure that the education given in these technical schools also includes courses in general education and that the teachers teaching in them are properly qualified and adequately trained to deal with boys in their adolescent years. If such single-purpose schools at the secondary education stage take care to see that the general education of their pupils is not jeopardized by an undue emphasis on the special courses provided therein, they would be enthusiastically supported both by parents and educational administrators. We have a good example of successful schools of this type in several European countries specially in the U.K. where technical secondary schools have proved their usefulness. The most fervent advocacy of the multipurpose school idea does not and should not rule out either the possibility or the need to have a certain number of single-purpose schools for technical scientific, commercial, agricultural, and other studies.

Readers may please note that the issues of **THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY** are now dated according to the seasons of the year instead of the months.

central, state or local control in education ?

THE RELATIONSHIP THAT EXISTS, OR should exist, between the three principal echelons of Government in most democratic countries—the Centre, the State and the Local Authority is of supreme importance for the progress and well-being of the country not only in the field of education, but, since education touches life at all points, in every sphere of life, public and private. It is, however, of especial importance in the field of education. Who is ultimately responsible for the education of the citizens of a country? The Central Government, the State Government, the Local Municipalities or Corporation, or the individual family? And if it is not the exclusive prerogative of any one of these four interested parties, but a mutual obligation and a shared responsibility, in what way and in what proportion should each party fulfil its particular responsibility and contribute to their common objective?

The question is one which faces every modern democratic country; the answer depends very much on the political, social, moral and religious history, traditions and character of the country concerned. It swings between the extremes of absolute centralisation and almost complete decentralisation, with many countries taking up a middle-of-the-road stand between these two extremes.

French Centralisation

France, ever since the reorganisation of the educational administration of the country by Napoleon, has followed an educational policy of more or less complete centralisation, each of the 17 Academies into which the country is divided being adminis-

tered by a Rector appointed by and answerable direct to the Minister of National Instruction, and possessing a uniform system of administration subject to the Centre. Though it is no longer true that the Minister of National Instruction at Paris can by consulting his watch tell which particular lesson of what subject is being taught at that moment in every classroom in France, yet a surprising degree of uniformity in administration, curricula and methods does exist all over the country. In recent years, however, there has been a reaction against this rigid uniformity and regimentation, and some measure of liberty to adapt curricula and methods to local needs and variations is now permitted. The high degree of Central control is the natural consequence of the fact that the Centre alone finances all Secondary, Higher and Technical education; the Local authorities contribute about one-third of the cost of elementary education and have some degree of control over it. France, then, has solved the problem of the proper relationship between the Centre and the Local authority by concentrating power and control in the hands of the former and reducing the latter to an inferior status; centralisation is at a maximum and decentralisation at a minimum.

U.S. Decentralisation

The exact opposite obtains in the U.S.A. where decentralisation is predominant. Under the U.S. Constitution, Education is a 'reserved' subject, hence of no direct concern to the Central (Federal) Government. The primary responsibility for education in the U.S.A. rests with the State governments, which, in practice, where elementary and secondary education are concerned, delegate most of it to the local districts, townships

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or counties. Historically the small isolated, autonomous, self-contained pioneer settlements of America's early history are responsible for the growth of the strong spirit of local autonomy that characterises the small local units in the U.S.A., which despite increasing State and Central (Federal) pressure still retain a very real measure of local control in educational matters and obstinately oppose any undue external State or Federal interference in their affairs.

The States, in turn, are as strongly opposed to any Federal support and control in the field of education and pursue a "hands-off" policy that has so far considerably slowed down the growing movement in favour of a more active participation by the Federal government in the field of education. This movement started in the early years of this century with the Smith-Mundt Act (1909) by which the Centre extended Federal aid to the States for the promotion of vocational education in the nation's schools and assumed supervisory and directive powers to ensure that the money was well-spent by the States and local authorities. The two wars quickened the tempo of Federal aid and interference considerably but its activities are still of an *ad hoc* nature and not part of a deliberate plan, and there is yet no organic relationship between the Centre and the States in the field of education. But Federal financial aid, accompanied by some measure of supervision and control, has increased rapidly in recent years and the Supreme Court decision in 1937 that in "Any activity related to the general welfare" it is quite constitutional for the Federal Government to supplement and, if necessary, even to supersede the State governments, has created a loophole for large-scale Federal activity in the educational scene. Such activity, it is apparent, is on the increase, and, if the present trend continues, will end sooner or later in the Federal Government assuming a greater measure of responsibility for and control of education in America. But the resistance of the States, shown by the rejection last year of the President's Bill to give aid to

the States for School construction, continues to be adamant.

English Middle Way

England, with her genius for compromise, has managed to find a middle way between the French and the U.S. extremes, and to strike a happy mean between the respective powers and responsibilities of the Central and the Local authorities. Between the Ministry of Education at the Centre and the Local Education Authorities or L.E.A.'s at the periphery, there exists a partnership, which, while avoiding the regimentation and subordination of the latter as in France, enables the former to promote the development of a national educational policy, iron out the existing inequalities between L.E.A. and L.E.A. and bring about a general leveling up of standards throughout the country, without sacrificing that variety and freedom which are the lifeblood of educational health and progress. Though under the 1944 Act the Ministry of Education, under a Minister charged with the "supervision and direction" of education, has a much bigger say in the control of education than formerly, yet the primary initiative and responsibility for it and genuine self-government still vest with the Local authorities. This partnership, despite occasional friction and clashes, works well, and gives the English educational system a unity in diversity that is vital and full of dynamic potentialities for further growth. Hence it is not surprising that in his most recent pronouncement of policy "Secondary Education for All. . . . A New Drive (1958)" the Minister of Education in England after critically reviewing the existing set-up, concludes that it is the best, if not the only administrative pattern for the country. "Given the different needs of children and the varying needs of localities, it would be wrong in the Government's view, to aim at, let alone to impose, anything like a uniform pattern of secondary education for the whole of England and Wales. Such rigidity would be in direct contradiction to the concept of the educational service as a service which, within the broad framework of national policy, is administered locally.

Individual schools have grown up in response to and have been shaped by local needs. The result is that a considerable variety of schools exist in this local scheme of organisation in which they work. This variety is a valuable foundation on which to build the future. The Government are convinced that this approach is best calculated to satisfy the needs both of the nation and of individual children."

States' Autonomy in India

India, being a secular, democratic republic on a federal pattern has modelled her educational policy more on that of the U.S.A., than that of England or France. Under the Constitution, the States have almost complete autonomy in the field of education, which is largely financed and controlled by them. The Central Minister for Education has direct control only over certain centrally-administered areas such as Delhi and Himachal Pradesh, and over National Research Institutions and Universities of an All-India character. Everything else is controlled by the States; the Centre aiding them with advice, inspiration, information, and, in recent years to a rapidly increasing extent, with financial aid. The States have always delegated, at least with respect to primary education, to some extent their power and responsibility to urban and rural municipal authorities, but because of the lethargy or inability of those authorities to discharge their responsibilities, the present tendency is towards an increasing measure of State control at the expense of local autonomy. And paradoxically, central influence, because of the control of the purse strings, is growing slowly but steadily. In the face of these varying systems, these questions naturally arise. What is the ideal system, if any, of regulating the relationship between the Centre, the States and the local authorities; and more specially, is the present relationship in India satisfactory and, if not, what are its weaknesses and how can they be removed and the system improved to the limit of maximum efficiency?

First Principles

In any approach to this vexed problem, certain first principles must, in the author's opinion, be kept in mind. Firstly, Education is the primary responsibility not of the Centre, or of a State Government or of a local authority but of the family and the local community of families. The family is the natural basic unit of society and parents have the first and the ultimate responsibility for the physical, intellectual, moral and spiritual growth of their children, which it is the overall aim of education to bring about. Hence parents have the inalienable right to decide to what school and to what teachers they will entrust their children, and should be given a share in deciding what they are to be taught. The nearer the centre of control of education is to the family, the more democratic, healthy and progressive is likely to be the resulting system of education. In the light of this postulate, the role of the State in a democracy should not be to endeavour to suppress or curtail parental rights in education, but to safeguard them and to create the conditions and provide opportunities so that parents can fulfil their duty to the best of their ability. Only if parents cannot or will not fulfil their obligations in this matter has the State the right to interfere and even then, it should not, except in hopeless cases, abrogate all parental rights in this matter. The second principle—a principle vital to a Democracy—is that of subsidiarity. No higher or more powerful body or organisation should usurp or take over any function that can be adequately performed by a lesser body or organisation. To tend in the opposite direction *i.e.* to confer greater powers on the larger bodies by weakening the smaller, is to head for totalitarianism. This principle should govern the relationship between the Central Ministry of Education, the State Departments of Education and the local administration. The Central Government should only enter where the State Government is unable or incapable of fulfilling its obligations in the field of education and its entry should mainly take the form of financial help, either in the form of a

block grant as in England, or of special *ad hoc* grants for specific deficiencies as in the U.S.A., or in the provision of an adequate scholarship scheme to equalise opportunities. With financial aid will naturally go some measure of control—the Central Government has the right to see that the money it provides is not wasted—but this control should not be repressive; the Centre should use persuasion rather than force in achieving its objectives. A similar relationship should characterise the State Government's approach to the local authorities, the Municipalities or Corporations whose, immediate responsibility it is, or should be, to provide for at least the basic educational needs of the area over which it has jurisdiction. The State must extend generous support to the Municipalities or Corporations to enable them to fulfil their responsibilities and ensure that the money is well spent in providing a sufficiency and a variety of institutions for the educational needs of the area; where gaps exist in local provisions for education, the State should fill them with institutions of its own, but it should not supersede, reduce to impotence, or crush the initiative and responsibility of the local communities, and, above all, of the parents and guardians in the interests of a soulless efficiency and a lifeless uniformity. In this connection the wise words of Prof. Kandell, a world famous authority on educational administration, are worth quoting. "There must be", says Prof. Kandell, "a clear and definite line of demarcation between those aspects of an educational system that the State through a bureaucracy may control in the interests of efficiency and uniformity and those that organisation, mechanisation and dictatorial prescription would in the end destroy. In a democracy there is a clear and definite answer to the question 'To whom do the Schools belong?' The answer should be that the State is only a partner in an enterprise in which all cultural groups within it are concerned and involved, and in the determination of which they should therefore have a voice."

Centre-States Relationship

How does the present system of educational administration stand judged in the light of the above first principles?

Under the new Constitution, as is well-known, education is rightly a State subject and each State has the right and the duty of fashioning its own system of education and of administering it as it thinks fit. The Central Government acts traditionally therefore as a coordinating, stimulating and resource agency, and extends financial help, if and when necessary, to the State Government to help them to meet their educational obligations. Since Independence however, the Central Government has begun to play a more active and positive role in furthering educational progress on an All-India plane and promoting a greater measure of unity in diversity and equality of educational opportunity among the States through the deliberations of the Central Advisory Board of Education and the various expert Commissions and committees appointed which have published authoritative reports on several major aspects of education in the country which have given a clear lead to the country as a whole concerning the important matters referred to them for consideration; through All-India bodies like the All-India Council for Secondary Education, the All-India Council for Elementary Education, the All-India Council for Technical Education and Central institutions like the Central Institute of Education or the National Institute of Basic Education and the Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance; through all-India and regional educational Conferences, and finally through its wide variety of publications. Central aid to State Governments under the First and Second Five-Year Plans has also increased substantially, and, with it directly or indirectly Central pressure and a certain measure of Central superintendence and control. The Centre having granted liberal and the much needed financial assistance to the States has the right to ensure that the money is spent wisely on sound, worthwhile educational

projects and plans of various kinds, to see that a broad measure of uniformity obtains as between State and State and that all State development plans fit into the national framework. It should not, however, use the power of the purse which it possesses to impose its views on all State Governments or to iron out all differences between State and State. The Centre can, and should give a positive lead to the States in the attempt to evolve a truly national system of education for the country as a whole, but it should remember that such a national system for a vast country like ours must inevitably be a unity in diversity in which individual families, the local community, the State and the Centre all work in harmonious partnership each in its appointed sphere making its own unique contribution towards the final end which is to provide rich and varied educational opportunities of all kinds for all children, young people and adults in the country. Such a partnership must be a free and equal partnership, especially where the Centre and the States are concerned; hence any attempt at central regimentation or centralisation of power and responsibility should be avoided and the States must continue to enjoy real autonomy in the field of education.

States and Local Communities

The same democratic attitudes and values and principles should inform the relationship between the State Education Department and local communities and the public at large. The State Department of Education therefore in its turn should not pursue a policy of rigid centralisation and regimentation, by starting or taking control of all educational institutions itself or forcing them to conform to a rigid and restrictive code of regulations which deprives them of all liberty and individuality. Rigid State control of education may help to some extent to promote a certain uniformity and standardisation and equalise educational opportunity, but it tends to destroy or discourage experiment, local initiative and variety which are the lifeblood of the true education. Hence the State Department should endeavour

to draw local authorities, parents and the public at large into a real partnership with it in its endeavour to provide for the educational needs of all the children and young people and adults in the State. When parental or local initiative and interest is found wanting, the State has the right, and indeed the duty to provide its own schools and other educational institutions for the children of the area concerned. But where the local administration is active, or voluntary and philanthropic associations of groups of parents are forthcoming to provide good schools, the State Department of Education, after making sure that such schools and educational institutions fulfil certain indispensable minimum conditions for recognition, and seeing through supervision and inspection, that they are fulfilled, should not hesitate to recognise them and extend to them such financial assistance as is necessary for their effective working. The growing tendency of Departments of Education all over the world to usurp the educational rights of parents, voluntary associations and local committees is to be deplored. Some measure of a rather drab and colourless uniformity may be attained thereby but its price will be a loss of freedom, initiative, experiment and variety without which no educational system can progress. Not only local authorities, but, more especially, parents and guardians still have their part to play in a truly democratic system of education, and both the Central and the State Governments should educate them to play this part to the best of their ability.

Central, State, Local or parental control in education? All four, as we have endeavoured to prove, are necessary and desirable for the educational institutions of a democracy and are their common responsibility. All four are partners in a joint undertaking, and on the establishment of sound, working and workable conditions for a true partnership, in which each partner does what it is best fitted to do and makes its unique contribution to the common good, depends the efficiency, vitality and progress of any democratic national system of education, including our own.

education in the states—madras

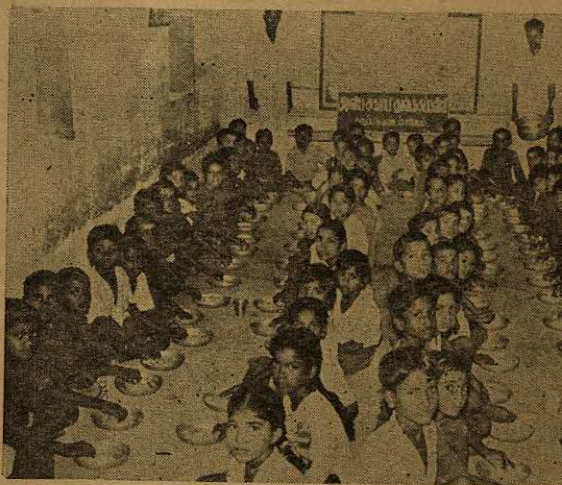
Free Mid-day Meals for School Children— A People's Movement

THE MOVEMENT BEGAN as a voluntary measure in July 1956. The place was Perinthalmanna in Malabar District where a gruesome experience resulted in a pioneering movement. The Director of Public Instruction, Madras happened to be on a visit to the Board High School at Perinthalmanna. As the students gathered to meet him, two of them swooned of hunger. As subsequent enquiry showed this was a common event in the school, boys fainting in the class rooms, having had no meal at all at noon. The Director of Public Instruction pursued his enquiry and found that starvation among school children was not confined to the school at Perinthalmanna but was widespread. Education had spread and children of the poor attended schools in ever increasing numbers. This was, of course, welcome, but then how could education be effectively imparted to starving children? True, schools were thrown open and education was made free and the rich and the poor alike could take advantage of these facilities. But, while the well-nourished children from the better-off homes could concentrate on and learn their lessons, the unfortunate children from the poorer homes could not even attend to their lessons. In the circumstances, "equality of opportunity for all" proved a mockery. The Director of Public Instruction, Madras was considerably exercised about this problem and became convinced that unless the children who attended school got a square meal at least once a day, the money and effort spent on the schooling of the poor children would go to waste.

The Director gave expression to his thoughts at various gatherings of school teachers. The following are the extracts

from his Report presented on the occasion of the 123rd School Improvement Conference :

"In a country where day after day thousands of people who cannot work or will not work are being fed out of the charities of those that are working hard, is it impossible to organise and divert a part of those charities into the School Meals Programme? I gave expression to these thoughts at a gathering of elementary school teachers at Tuticorin, the port of pearls. The spark that was ignited in Perinthalmanna set a glow to this idea in Tuticorin. It was however the villagers of Nagalapuram who fanned the spark into a flame. Happening to listen to a tape recording of my Tuticorin speech at a school meeting and being struck by the idea, they immediately consulted among themselves and decided to donate grains and to organise a scheme for giving mid-day meals to poor children in their school. From there it spread far and wide as pearls did in ancient times.



Not a wedding feast ! But children of the Elementary School, Karuppagoundanpalayam, Tiruchengode Range, Salem District, are having their free noon meal. Now a normal feature in most Elementary Schools in Madras State.

The idea was taken up enthusiastically and implemented in many villages. The time-honoured hospitality and charity of the Indian villagers found one more channel of expression. The rich and the poor, the literate and the illiterate vied with one another in contributing their mite. Housewives showed the way by setting apart a handful of rice each day to this noble cause. Farmers set the movement in further motion by donating grains at the threshing field itself. Children have also a place of honour in this new form of service. In an elementary school at Avinashi, Coimbatore District, they launched the movement, by each pupil bringing a match-box full of rice for a few days and in a certain high school the entire student community contributed once a week a handful of rice. Cash donations flowed freely from salaried and monied persons."

The response of the public to this voluntary movement impressed the Government which lent a helping hand by giving a regular subsidy on the basis of 60% of the recurring cost. Government's support gave further momentum to the movement for free mid-day meals. Today out of 26,281 Elementary schools 25,294 are providing free

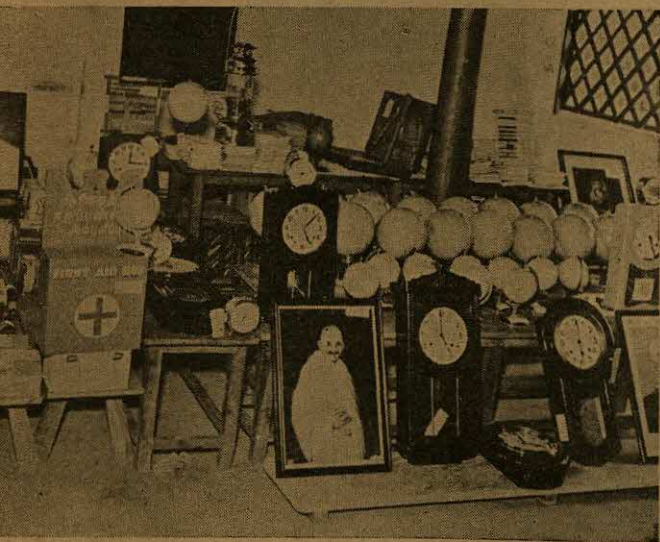
noon meals to poor children. The number of pupils that derive this benefit is as large as 9,11,820. In addition to these, as many as 13,319 students reading in 506 High Schools are also receiving free meals entirely out of the contribution of the people without any subsidy from Government. There is a local Meals Committee of donors for every one of these Mid-day Meal Centres.

The People's Movement for free Mid-day meals and its success led to salutary reforms in other neglected fields. The Elementary schools in the South, for years, had been in a sad condition. Ramshackle buildings with poor equipment or no equipment at all and with teaching aids known only for their paucity, housed pupils, who under the tutelage of struggling but stout-hearted teachers, battled to seek light. No wonder, the standards of instruction were below par but what is surprising is how the teachers and pupils held on to their tasks amidst such deplorable conditions. Schooling at sub-standard level produced only sub-standard products in these elementary schools and this affected the standards in High Schools and Colleges also. If the education that was given to these pupils was to be worth its name at all, radical reforms were indicated. The condition brooked no delay.

The Madras Government hit upon the idea of capitalizing on the tremendous goodwill that flowed from the public in the matter of Mid-day meals. In an area around Kadambattur in Chingleput District, it was found that 76 Elementary schools had been regularly providing free mid-day meals without a break for six months. This certainly would not have been possible without the closest cooperation between the teachers and the public. The Government of Madras decided to harness this advantage for School Improvement Programme.

School Improvement Project

The first stage in this experiment of School Improvement Project was a comprehensive survey of the actual condition of each school in a given area. That survey



This is typical of the variety of equipment given to schools—clocks, globes, furniture, first-aid boxes, petromax lights, arithmetical instruments, books, slates etc.

kept in view the normal requirements of an elementary school with regard to accommodation, furniture, equipment, teaching aids, library facilities, sanitary provision, space for play activities and gardening. The requirements, not only for the immediate present but also for the future, were kept in mind while assessing the needs of individual schools. This survey revealed the actual deficiencies under each item. Then the people in the school village and the neighbourhood were apprised of these deficiencies either at a formal gathering or at informal meetings. The teachers acting as catalytic agents persuaded the villagers to come forward either individually or jointly to provide the needs of the school adequately and suitably, according to their capacity. This novel idea caught the imagination of the people and the response was spontaneous and generous. After the villagers had undertaken the provision of the various requirements, a conference of the public, the donors and of teachers was held at Kadamabattur on 20th February, 1960. At that conference articles, presented to the schools were exhibited. The conference and the exhibition demonstrated to society the possibility of widespread and quick reconstruction through self-help.

This mass movement for community self-help which began humbly in 1958 has now grown to gigantic proportions. The Madras State can proudly count to its credit as many as 122 Conferences within a comparatively short span of 30 months. The conferences have covered 17,584. The estimated cost of all these schemes works up to Rs. 5.81 crores.

The Madras State has now reached a stage where every village with a population of 300 and above has a school within a distance of one mile. The required school may be there in the required place, but how to attract children from the poorest homes to this school? The Free Meals Scheme has provided an effective answer.

The schemes undertaken under the School Improvement Movement cover a wide range;



"No money, no lands, no jewels! But I have grown some cocoanut saplings outside my hut. May I give some of them to my village school?", asks Sri Murugan, a poor Harijan of Karaiyiruppu Village, Nannilam Taluk, Tenjore District.

from the construction of school buildings to the supply of first-aid material; from electrification and sanitation to the supply of cooking utensils for mid-day meals; from *Bhoodan* for play area and gardening to the provision of libraries; from the supply of uniforms to poor children to the supply of equipment for handicrafts and many more.

These advantages may not be equally shared by all the schools but the minimum necessary amenities are given to all of them.

What about the financial implications? What about the rate of progress? Out of schemes costing Rs. 581 lakhs, schemes to the value of Rs. 370 lakhs have already been carried out. It cannot, of course, be claimed that in all these thousands of schools that have come under these projects, there is nothing left to be desired but a step in the right direction has been taken and the progress is reviewed annually. The School Improvement Project is not just an isolated event of historic importance, happening once in a way, but is expected

to be *an annual feature of every school*. Actually the Kadambattur area which was the pioneer in this movement had already celebrated the third annual conference. So also, the neighbouring area of Tiruvellore has 3 conferences to its credit. Uthukkottai and Poonamalle in Chingleput District and Sivakssai in the District of Ramanathapuram, have each two conferences to their credit.

This movement for School Improvement has the immediate objective of adequately equipping the schools but its ultimate aim that would be of lasting benefit is making the people self-reliant, self-confident and socially a force to reckon with.

Concluding his Report to the 123rd School Improvement Conference, the Director of Public Instruction Madras said :

"Today we have gathered in such large numbers to hold the 123rd School Improvement Conference. This is the biggest conference ever organised—perhaps the biggest that can ever be organised. As many as 698 Elementary schools, 3 Training schools and 12 High schools have come into this picture today. Most of them needed something or other. In some of them almost everything was lacking. Out of 698 Elementary schools, only 144

schools had some elementary sanitary provision. But as a result of this movement, 476 more schools have since been provided with urinals. Every one of them has now built up on this occasion a small children's library. Provision has been made in all of them for drinking-water supply.

Education has now acquired a larger meaning. The School Community not merely learn the 3 R's but also have started to play their part in growing more food which incidentally helps them to learn their lessons on nature study at first hand. Most elementary schools have started gardening and nearly 3,000 saplings have been planted. We can now claim that the black boards are really worthy of their name. Towards these various improvements, both major and minor, 6,068 projects have been undertaken. The sum total of the cost of these projects is 23 lakhs of rupees. Towards these, many have been carried out. Some more remain to be completed. We are confident that every one of them will be completed in due course."

The people of Madras have thus given a lead in the matter of free Mid-day Meals for school children and in building new schools for old.

(Courtesy: *Vellore School Improvement Conference Souvenir 1960*).

● Training is everything. The peach was once a bitter almond; cauliflower is nothing but cabbage with a college education.

—Mark Twain

economics of higher education

Introduction

ALTHOUGH PHENOMENAL PROGRESS has been made in the field of education during the First and Second Five-Year Plans, two well-known criticisms are still levelled against Indian higher education. The first and foremost is that by laying too much emphasis on literary education ever since its inception, it has been made increasingly out of tune with the economic needs of the country. Secondly, notwithstanding this over-emphasis on literary education, it is also alleged that Indian higher education, barring some notable exceptions, has not made any 'significant contribution even to this branch of human knowledge'. The educational standards have fallen so much that 'persons who have reached the highest stage are not only ill-informed and ill-educated about the affairs of the world but are sometimes ignorant of the elementary things in their own fields of study'. Indeed, it has almost become a fashion in India to look down upon universities with contempt and to make unrealistic comparisons with the British or other European universities. But very few persons have realised that the high standards of the British Universities are attributable largely to a highly qualified but contented teaching staff, well-equipped libraries and laboratories and meritorious students pursuing their studies free from financial embarrassments. Surely, if the critics were to make even a cursory glance of the budget statements of the Indian universities and colleges, of their continuous and chronic deficits, of their expenditure on teachers' salaries, libraries, etc., they would find themselves driven to the inevitable conclusion that none of the pre-requisites had been fulfilled, and, above all, that the teach-

ing profession in India, was not getting the best talents available in the country.

Now that we are on the threshold of the Third Five-Year Plan, we may usefully ask the question : What is this unpleasant situation, after all, due to ? Is it merely because the expenditure on Indian higher education has been "inadequate," or is there something basically wrong with the method of finance ? In fact, the situation is the outcome of both the factors. For the moment, it is upon the question of providing 'optimum' resources to higher education that I shall concentrate my attention. In my view, discussion of the ways in which India can provide 'optimum' investment for the provision of education should be given first priority, for this alone can give meaning to any consideration of such issues as the present method of finance.

The study is not an easy one, primarily because the criteria by which the economist examines the desirability or otherwise of using economic resources in a particular manner cannot be applied in the examination of a social service like education. There can be three reasons for this. Firstly, to arrive at a precise figure of education expenditure, the economist must be able to assess the "returns" of education in comparison to those arising from its alternative uses, because to the extent a community spends on education, diversion of economic resources from other services is implied. This task is a difficult one, because investments in education bring dividends which are not perceptible to the naked eye. Secondly, in case of a commodity bought and sold in the market, the consumption pattern of individuals through the market mechanism can serve as a reliable guide for deciding how much of a commodity shall be produced,

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and, by implication, also how much communal resources shall be used for its production. Social services, including education, are, however, provided free or at prices which do not cover the full cost of providing them. Consequently, the demand for education does not reflect its full value to the community in any direct way, because the consumers themselves are not required to forgo the consumption of other commodities in order to make the consumption of education possible. Finally, benefits from education accrue not only to the individual consumer but are also disseminated among other members of the community. An enlightened society that results from widespread literacy is an obvious example. This means that the value of education to individuals will not reflect its full value to the community, even if they are called upon to pay the market price for this service. This tendency, therefore, supports the view that the supply of this "Commodity" cannot be left to the free play of market forces; the market will not provide "enough" education because individuals acting alone are not prepared to promote a cause which is indivisible.

All of us are familiar with these arguments. They have, however, encouraged the economists to discuss education expenditure with reference to some statistically "objective" measures of other kinds. Thus, we may gather the necessary statistical information regarding the financial allocations under the Five-Year Plans and their distribution among the different levels and types of education. Further, we may also discover the proportions of national income spent on education in order to show how total expenditure on goods and services used for education has varied over time. Finally to complete our study, we may even make projections of national income and in the light of that decide the "share" that education must receive from our total output of goods and services. This method is fraught with danger and it will be a shattering comment on our commonsense if we believe that this is the only approach possible. Frankly speaking, proportions of national income

spent on education and their distribution among the different levels and types of education provide us with information, but for policy purposes their utility is insignificant. How much, then, a community should spend on education is a question which we cannot decide without some criterion, and this criterion cannot be derived from heaps of dead statistics, except, of course, by those who believe that *any* expenditure on education is always less than it should be. But to the people of this category, logic or statistics are unnecessary. To my mind the necessary criterion must find its guiding principle in the aims of the social order and in the judgment of the community expressed through its official channels. For, unless a society knows what it is striving for, what type of social order it intends to build and what role education can play towards the attainment of those objectives, it cannot decide what resources can serve the purpose and who should provide them.

Education under the Indian Constitution

I take, then, Indian Constitution as my guide to derive the necessary criterion. The outlines of the social aims which must govern all our educational institutions, are crystallised in the preamble to the Constitution which defines India as a democratic State, pledged to secure to all its citizens justice, liberty and equality of status and opportunity. Democracy affirms that individuals shall enjoy *freedom of choice* and deplors that totalitarian principle which treats him merely as a pawn of the State who should either think and behave as the State orders him to think and behave, or be destroyed by the dead hand of bureaucracy. Justice, in the field of education, means that educational institutions should train the ordinary citizens to participate intelligently in public affairs and produce social leaders, literary scholars and technical men of all types. Liberty refers to the liberal character of education and guarantees freedom of thought and expression to the teachers. Equality of status and opportunity means that every child up to the age of 14 shall receive free and compulsory education, and

at university level education shall be accessible to all on grounds of merit only.

Clearly, for the attainment of the aforesaid objectives, this statement of social aims assumes that "consumers" as free citizens shall have perfect freedom to consume the particular types and amounts of education of their *choice* through a system of voluntary and spontaneous exchange. And as the custodian of public interest, the role of the State will be to provide a certain framework of law and order, to remove the obstacles which prevent the free play of market forces, to make necessary legal provision for the enforcement of contracts, and to perform other functions of a general nature that are necessary in respect of all other economic activities. Given this society the question to be answered is : how should India decide upon the size of economic resources that would reflect "optimum" investment in the provision of educational facilities, and, particularly, what role should be assigned to the State in relation to this decision ?

I might put the question in another way: Why should the State have any special role at all other than general functions given above ? In practice, however, the State intervention may also be argued on three other grounds :

1. Education is consumed by irrational individuals and no community can afford to leave the provision of this important "commodity" to their faulty and immature judgment. This argument for State intervention may be relevant at elementary stages since the illiterate parents may be unable to take a 'correct' decision on behalf of their children owing to their faulty mental equipment. At the university level, however, this argument is not valid because at that stage students are sensible enough to assess the real worth of education.

2. Secondly, the freedom of individuals in educational matters may look imaginary if the conditions of monopoly or imperfect competition make effective competition and, therefore, voluntary and spontaneous ex-

change, impossible. That is, the supply of education may become concentrated in a few hands or in some selected areas and exhibit individual as well as geographical discrimination. The presence of this tendency accompanied by the economic incapacity of the average parents to send their children to cities even for elementary education have been some of the factors which have handicapped us in our effort to banish ignorance from the country. Hence as long as these conditions continue, perhaps Government will have to provide educational facilities directly. But this makes no case for the permanent retention of State-managed schools in those areas or its extension or even continuance in those parts of the country where these difficulties have ceased to exist. For higher education, as the subsequent discussion will show, direct provision of education by the State on this ground is even weaker than for elementary and secondary education.

Finally, State intervention is sought because education brings benefits of a communal nature discussed above. Since the society as a whole benefits from some minimum level of education, parents, if not subsidised, will be paying for something more than the direct benefits received by their children. In so far as education provides these benefits, it is the State and not the individual who should bear its cost.

There can be some further arguments for State intervention in education matters. In India, however, the social benefit argument appears to be the strongest and the most relevant argument for State intervention. As has been already pointed out, the community's interests require that every citizen up to a certain age must receive some minimum degree of education necessary for citizenship and economic efficiency. The acceptance of this proposition will have certain implications about the role of the State in the provision of educational facilities. First, it does not justify State intervention in *all* types of education. Secondly, State subsidisation for securing a minimum level of knowledge is justifiable on social grounds,

but it does not justify the extreme form of State intervention, namely, direct provision of education in the State-managed institutions.

As regards the first question, we can distinguish between general education and professional and technical education. Strictly speaking, technical education, as distinct from general education, is a form of investment which increases the economic productivity of the students. The incentive for investment in this type of education is the expectation of a higher reward for his services than he could command even without acquiring knowledge of a specialised skill. True, much general education also increases the economic value of the student and much technical education also brings benefits of a social nature. Nevertheless, the arguments for State support for the training of engineers, doctors and other specialised skills are not so strong as those of subsidising elementary education or general education at the university level. Recently, the All-India Council for Technical Education has recommended higher salary scales for engineering and other technical personnel and these enhanced salaries will be paid mostly by the Government—the same Government which enabled them to acquire the necessary education. On the other hand, in view of the acute under-investment in human capital, the constitutional directive to bring equal opportunities to all those who are unable to increase their economic prospects on account of financial barriers, and, above all, the urgency of having trained technical personnel of all types for implementing the plans of economic development, there is a very strong case for State intervention in this field, too. However, the State should achieve these objectives not by an outright subsidy, but by a system of loans under which the individuals as borrowers undertake to repay the State a certain portion of their future earnings after completing their training. Certain technical difficulties might arise in providing adequate loan facilities, but they would not be insuperable.

State support for general education is justified on the ground that it brings bene-

fits of a social nature mentioned above. To attain this objective, the ideal solution for the State will be to compel every parent to provide, in the interest of the community, at least a minimum required level of education just as it requires the owners of buildings, factories, restaurants, etc., to maintain some specified minimum standards for the safety of the general public. A child is, thus, somewhat analogous to a building or restaurant, but there is one important difference in the two cases. If the owner of a building or restaurant has no finance to satisfy the minimum standards laid down by the State, he can sell it to the one who can do it—a convenient device that renders government subsidy in such cases unnecessary. To suggest the separation of the children from those parents who are not able to provide them with the minimum of education will be inconsistent with the freedom of the individual in a democratic State, and this constitutes a valid reason for State subsidisation. But this does not justify direct provision of education in the State-managed schools. All that the Government can rightly do will be (a) to ensure by legislation that parents provide the minimum required education, and (b) subsidisation to reflect the communal value of education to the country as a whole.

The above discussion shows that if State support for general education is indispensable on social grounds, then the communal gain from education is most prominent at the primary and secondary stages and it begins to decline simultaneously with a rise in the level of education. Evidently, the argument for direct provision of higher education by Government has still lesser force than even elementary and secondary education. Subsidisation of higher education, however, is justifiable because the community's interests require these young students to receive further education in order to fulfil the essential pre-requisite of a stable and democratic society. Thus the best form of State intervention seems to be to select meritorious students and subsidise them to reflect the communal value of higher education to the society as a whole.

Outline of a "Free" Higher Education System

Let us now see the pattern of higher education system that will emerge if the general principles and arguments described above are given effect to. Clearly, the main feature of this system would be that educational facilities would be provided by private institutions of all types which could be operated for profit or non-profit purposes, as the case may be. Individuals, as free and responsible citizens of the Democratic Republic will avail themselves of the existing educational facilities from an institution of their own choice and the role of the Government under different heads will be of the following character :

General Education

1. Selection of students who are considered fit for a course which demands encouragement in the national interests. Since the century-old over-emphasis on this type of education has handicapped the country in the solution of its economic problems, it is necessary that the standards of selection are stiff enough to check the indiscriminate rush to the courses of a purely literary character. State subsidisation of these selected students is justifiable because communal interests require these young men to receive further education so that they are able to raise the intellectual level of the community. However, others not selected for this course, will not be prevented from pursuing higher education, but they will not be allowed to enjoy this privilege of *consumer's freedom of choice* at the expense of the general tax-payer. This is reasonable. Why should the Government subsidise students whose aimless academic pursuits are not going to bring benefits to the nation ?

2. Provision of Education Vouchers to the selected students who will have the option to spend the same with any finance they can get from their parents in an institution of their own choice subject to (3). The size of the grant, however, should be

uniform all over the country to avoid the problems of migration.

3. Prescribing conditions for the maintenance of minimum standards, but not amounting to interference in the normal academic activities of the institutions of higher education. This will restrict State support to only those institutions which maintain the requisite standards and are alive to the country's interest in general education.

Technical and Professional Education

State intervention in this field will not be in the form of a direct subsidy, but in the form of adequate loan facilities for all those who satisfy some minimum standards and are anxious to undertake technical education of some kind, provided they agree to repay the State a certain portion of their future earnings. Surely, this system of finance will democratise educational opportunities by removing the deep-rooted obstacles to the smooth flow of economic resources to the investment in human beings.

Capital Grants

Under the above system, public expenditure on higher education will reach the institution of higher education through the students in the form of tuition fees. However, the Government will have to participate on an institutional basis so far as the capital grants, say, for buildings, equipment, etc., are concerned. The actual expenditure on this head will vary from year to year and the amount of capital grant for each institution will depend on such factors as their financial needs, the attainments which they already have to their credit, the national purpose they have to fulfil, and the geographical, regional and other factors that may be relevant.

This is obviously a most inadequate summary of the proposed system of financing Indian higher education. However, as this system of finance is based on the sovereignty of the individuals and not of educational institutions, its implementation will require far-reaching changes in the functions of the

University Grants Commission. Since shortage of space prevents me to discuss these issues here, I conclude with the conviction that its adoption will be beneficial in several ways : Firstly, by restricting government participation on an individual basis on the condition that the students join an institution which fulfils the requisite standards, it is sure to foster a spirit of healthy competition among the educational institutions and this will improve the tone of higher education. Secondly, by ensuring that economic obstacles will no more stand in the

way of deserving students from receiving higher education, it will make democratisation of educational opportunities a reality. Thirdly, it will remove that string from the public purse which is unfortunately most often used to interfere with the academic autonomy of the universities. Finally, as this system meets the individual demand as well as the interest of the community in educating its citizens for a sound and stable democracy, in my view, this should result in the devotion of 'optimum' level of investment in the provision of higher education.

SMILE A WHILE

Professor of Political Economy : "Who's the Speaker of the House?"

Student : "Mother".



Lecturer : "Of course, you all know what the inside of a corpuscle is like".

Chairman : "Most of us do, but you'd better explain it for the benefit of them as have never been inside one".

compulsory national service

COMPULSORY NATIONAL SERVICE by all those who pass the Higher Secondary or the Pre-University examination is likely to become an integral part of our educational system. Ever since the attainment of independence, there has been an increasing recognition of the need for manual and social labour by students for improving the quality of country's manpower; but a practical step in this direction was taken only in 1958 when the Union Ministry of Education formulated a plan for introducing Compulsory National Service by young boys and girls during the period between High School and College. This plan was discussed at the conference of the Education Ministers of the States in August, 1959. Immediately after a committee known as the National Service Committee was constituted with Dr. C. D. Deshmukh as Chairman to prepare the scheme in the light of the views expressed by the Education Ministers. The Ministry of Education is now working out the details for implementing the scheme recommended by the Deshmukh Committee. The scheme which is estimated to cost about Rs. 100 crores during the Third Plan period and to involve from two to three lakhs of boys and girls is obviously of very great significance. It is, therefore, necessary to consider the scheme in relation to its objectives and implications.

Objectives

The scheme as formulated by the Deshmukh Committee has three main objectives: (a) The inculcation of military discipline; (b) imparting of general education; and (c) training of students for National Service. It will enable students to identify themselves with the programmes of national re-

construction and national security. As the programme of national service will be conducted mostly in the villages, it will make students familiar with the life and values of the people in the countryside and thus help in bringing about a renaissance in their fundamental values about the rural life. It will also equip them for taking up work in different aspects of rural areas, where the need for uplift work is very great. It is felt that the scheme will initiate a vital reform in the educational system of the country to the extent its objectives are realised.

Some enthusiastic supporters of the scheme have claimed some more merits for it; but these claims need to be examined.

It has been said that the compulsory national service will, by adding another year to the Pre-University stage, ensure that chronologically and intellectually mature students enter the portals of the University. The view, that the entry to the University must be looked at from the point of view of 'the public' rather than the parents, would perhaps find favour with one and all. There can be no denying the fact that only such students should be admitted to the college as can benefit from higher education; but one wonders if for this purpose it is unavoidable or even feasible to interpolate a long period of one year's break in the education of boys and girls—a purpose which can be achieved by enhancing the child's lower age limit of entry to the school or by increasing a year in the length of school education.

Again, in certain quarters it is felt that the scheme will provide a temporary palliative to those who seek some employment. This may not be realisable because the individuals undergoing the course of national service would neither be getting any training or acquiring any skill which will increase

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their earning capability nor receiving any income.

Some Important Considerations

The scheme will prolong a year of studentship for all those who desire to go in for University education. As the economic conditions of an average Indian student do not permit any such prolongations, the scheme is likely to be looked upon with great disfavour by the public. It is, therefore, just possible that the anticipated advantages may not accrue from the scheme. Also, it will make the college education beyond the reach of a greater number of students.

There is hardly any justification for isolating the programme of character training which the scheme aims at from that of education. Character training is an integral part of education and any attempt to isolate the former from the latter will give rise to complications which we may not be able to anticipate at this time. It will give the teachers and others a wrong impression that the character training of the students can be left to the post-school period. Character training is a long process involving so many agencies—home, society, school, friends, etc. The hope that what the student has not learnt in 11 to 12 years of schooling will be learnt by him in a year and that too under a different organisation might turn out to be a false one.

A year's break in the school and college periods will inevitably result in the academic deterioration of students and thus make the work of college teachers more difficult even though the students coming to the colleges would be more mature in age. Students desirous of sitting for some competitive examinations would also be greatly handicapped as they would be out of touch with their studies.

In view of these considerations, it is most vital that the proposed scheme should be suitably modified and an alternative scheme evolved which should, as far as

possible, embody the worthy objectives of this scheme and eliminate its defects.

Suggestions

At present we are spending considerable resources and a good deal of time and energy on activities which have more or less parallel aims. There is the National Cadet Corps, the Auxiliary Cadet Corps, the Scouting and Girl Guides Scheme and other such activities for improving the quality of our youth. All these activities can be merged with the National Service Scheme. This will give the schools more time for instruction, physical education, and sports as well as save a good deal of expenditure which is being incurred on the separate establishments of the departments organising these activities. A Committee has already been constituted under the Chairmanship of Pandit H. N. Kunzru for suggesting the co-ordination of the various co-curricular activities. The deliberations of this Committee would be more valuable, if they took into account the introduction of National Service Scheme.

The scheme should be made an integral part of the school system. Its implementation should be the responsibility of the Education Departments of States as it is in the case of the A.C.C. and Scouting.

A separate wing in the Ministry of Education may be set up for looking after the co-ordination and the progress of the scheme in the various States and securing the necessary help from the Ministries of Defence and Community Development.

However, if it is felt that for the efficient running of the scheme it is absolutely necessary to set up a National Board as well as Boards at the State levels as proposed by the Deshmukh Committee, the Constitution of these Boards should be such that the majority of the members of these Boards are educationists so that the educational aims of the scheme do not get lost or confined to merely the physical training of the individuals.

The scheme should be run by teachers and physical education instructors of schools and colleges. This will promote better pupil-teacher relationship and enhance the educative value of the scheme. These teachers may be given suitable training. The staff at present engaged at organising N.C.C., A.C.C., and N.D.S. may also help in this work.

Students should be required to render national service during the vacation period and not after they have finished their schooling. In this way, besides saving the extra year that is proposed to be spent now, they will get the requisite useful training during the years of their adolescence when it is most needed. The scattered summer, autumn, winter and spring vacations which interrupt the school work at intervals should be combined into one span of holidays for three months and each year students from the ninth class onward should spend two months and twenty days at the national service camps leaving three days for the movement to the camp and back home and a week for holidaying. Thus by the time a student passes the higher secondary or equivalent examination, he would have attended the camp for eight months. Under this system even the students leaving the school after the ninth and the tenth classes would have rendered two-and-a-half to five months of national service—a benefit which cannot be had under the proposed scheme. Holding

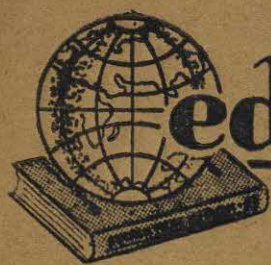
of camps during the vacations will have another advantage also. If at the camping station there is a school, its building can be utilized for camping purposes. Tents will not have to be pitched. Thus it will reduce the enormous expenditure which will otherwise have to be incurred on housing students. If the teacher-pupil ratio at the camps is kept at 1 : 100, then only about thirty-three per cent of the staff employed for the higher secondary department would be required to come on duty each year. In terms of the whole school, and in view of the N.C.C. and other 'external' staff helping, this percentage will be still less. Teachers can take their turn in attending these camps. They may be given some honorarium or earned leave in lieu of this work during the vacation.

The financial burden of the scheme and the sectors from which funds need to be deviated are also to be thought of. As the funds already allocated to education are very meagre and as the advantages of the scheme will accrue to various departments, expenditure on the scheme should be shared equally by the Ministries of Education, Defence and Community Development.

It is hoped that with minor modifications as suggested above, it would be possible to reduce the per capita cost of the scheme besides enhancing its educational value and making it more acceptable to the general public.

Important Announcement

The concessional rate of Re. 1.00 per copy of THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY has been extended for Secondary Schools for the financial year 1960-61 i. e. up to the Spring 1961 issue of the journal.



education today

The State Education Ministers' Conference concluded its two-day session at New Delhi on November 5, 1960 under the Chairmanship of Dr. K. L. Shrimali, Union Minister for Education. The Education Ministers of all States except Orissa attended the Conference and made recommendations for introducing compulsory Primary education, improving the pay scales of teachers, promoting national consciousness among students and propagation of Hindi.

Reviewing the progress made so far for launching the programme of expansion in Primary education during the Third Plan period, the Conference recommended that every State should enact a comprehensive and up to date law for the enforcement of compulsory Primary education.

The Conference recommended that the State Governments should take steps to provide all school-less villages with a school so that a definite target to establish a school within easy accessible distance from the home of every child by the end of the Third Plan is achieved.

There was consensus of opinion among the State Education Ministers that the success of the programme for expanding Primary education would largely depend on the additional enrolment of girls and especially upon the progress that would be made in this direction in the comparatively less

advanced States. The Conference, therefore, recommended that adequate funds for the special programme in the expansion of the education of girls at all stages should be made available to the States.

The Conference discussed and approved the recommendations made by a sub-committee appointed to examine the question of salaries of teachers. These recommendations were based on the proposals of the Union Education Ministry that the minimum basic salary of trained and untrained Primary teachers should be Rs. 50 and Rs. 40 respectively. It was hoped that the States where the teachers were getting less salaries, would also implement these recommendations.

The Conference recommended that the triple-benefit scheme of provident fund-cum-insurance-cum-pension on the pattern adopted in Madras State should be introduced for Primary teachers in all States and that the children of all Primary teachers should receive free tuition till the end of the High school stage.

All the State Education Ministers underlined the need for promoting national consciousness among students and bringing about their emotional integration with the wider interest of the country. The Conference, therefore, decided to appoint an expert committee to go into this question in detail.

For propagation of Hindi, the Conference recommended that adequate steps should be taken for the establishment of

Hindi Teacher Training colleges in non-Hindi speaking States. It also recommended that the State Governments might make a survey of the existing arrangements for the propagation of Hindi and take steps for improving the existing facilities in collaboration with the Union Government. Efforts to promote both Hindi and regional languages simultaneously in different States were emphasised.

* * *

The Government of Bihar have sanctioned the following amounts for the expansion of Primary Education and development of Primary education :

- (a) Rs. 3,90,000 for the utilization of 3,000 units under the Education Extension Programme for the rural areas.
- (b) Rs. 78,20,000 for the construction of buildings of 34 Training schools of the State.
- (c) Rs. 5,000 for the enrolment drive organised to encourage children to get themselves admitted in schools.
- (d) Rs. 71,500 (non-recurring) for the construction of buildings of Primary schools under the scheme of providing relief to educated unemployed persons.
- (e) Rs. 30,43,277 towards dearness allowances of Primary and Secondary school teachers out of which Rs. 27,61,029.75 nP. were to be spent for rural area and Rs. 2,82,247.25 nP. for urban area.
- (f) Rs. 14,30,000 for the construction of the buildings of the Primary and Middle schools.

* * *

West Bengal Government has sanctioned a scheme to appoint music teachers in two selected centres for popularising Rabindra Sangeet to be sung in the correct tone by the students of Basic and Primary schools in the State.

Primary Education
in West Bengal

Under the scheme, 100 music teachers will be appointed for the purpose. This is a part of the State's programme of the Rabindra Centenary Celebrations.

* * *

To cater for the growing educational needs at the Higher Secondary stage in Delhi, the Directorate of Education has opened 15 new schools of which six are for boys, six for girls and three co-educational.

In addition to this, two Middle schools have been upgraded to Higher Secondary standard.

These schools provide about 2,400 additional seats in classes VI to IX.

* * *

To improve the standard of English of the pupils of Secondary schools in the State, the Government of Gujarat have intensified the teaching of the language in standards VIII to X of all Secondary schools. English is now being taught for twelve periods out of forty-five per week, instead of eight periods per week that was being done in the past. Further, teaching of English has been made compulsory in these standards. Government have also appointed a committee to examine the present syllabi in English for those classes and to suggest ways and means to improve its standard in schools.

* * *

To facilitate admission of children of the minority language-speaking people into schools, the Government of Bihar has passed an order that a separate register should be maintained in every school in which applications for admission received from children speaking minority languages, should be entered. Such applications may be submitted six months before the admission. No such application for admission in any class should be rejected.

Minority Language
Speaking Children
in Bihar Schools

The School-authorities should examine such applications two months before the date of admission and should decide whether the number of applications for minority language classes is such as to necessitate the appointment of an extra teacher or not.

If it is found after the last date of admission, that the number of minority language-speaking children is 10 or more than that in any class, or 40 or more than that in the whole school then a teacher for that language, should be appointed. But if it is less, those students should be given the choice to leave the school and join any other if they desired to do so or remain there and continue their studies in the existent medium.

* * *

Dr. Rajendra Prasad, President of India, inaugurated the 123rd School Improvement Conference at Vellore (Madras State) on August 12, 1960. Speaking on the occasion, Dr. Prasad stressed the value of the spirit of dedication and service exhibited by the movement. He complimented the State of Madras on its success in this voluntary and non-official programme and help up this movement as an example to be followed by other States. Dr. Prasad added that he valued this work more because children educated in these institutions would be able to translate into practice what they learnt at present—the spirit of working together in a body to help each other.

Donations in cash and kind worth Rs. 13,38,615 were received during the Vellore Conference.

* * *

Schools in Delhi were opened this year under a heavy pressure of population under an emergency plan and consequently proper equipment could not be provided in school laboratories. Last year 12 school laboratories were improved at a cost of Rs. 29,700. This year sanction has been accorded for

Improvement of Teaching Science in Delhi

improving the laboratories of 12 schools at a cost of Rs. 54,727.

* * *

Under the Second Five-Year Plan the following targets were achieved by Madhya Pradesh during 1960-61 :

- (1) 235 Primary schools (Boys and Girls) were upgraded to the status of Higher Secondary schools.
- (2) 10 girls' Middle schools were upgraded to the status of Higher Secondary schools.
- (3) 55 High schools for boys were converted into Higher Secondary schools.
- (4) 80 Middle schools for boys were upgraded to the status of High schools.
- (5) Five New Higher Secondary schools for boys were opened.

* * *

In Assam, 261 Adult Literacy Centres—24 for women and 237 for men—were started for a term of four months, commencing from May 1, 1960. On an average 25 adults were admitted in each centre.

Social Education in Assam

Unlike previous years these centres were located strictly in compact areas around the Community Development centres. The timing of the current term from May to August appeared to be a little inconvenient, for towards August the people would be busy in their fields for cultivation. It was, therefore, decided at the meeting of the State Advisory Board for Social Education to start the term from April in future.

As for post-literacy programmes, 3,500 books suitable for neo-literates were distributed to the Adult Literacy Centres and rural libraries during the second quarter of the year.

Besides the bimonthly journal *Janasiksha*, two books for neo-literates were published

for the first time in Garo and Mizo languages and the same were translated into Khasi language for publication in the subsequent term.

Seven hundred and ninety-nine libraries, which received book-grants during 1959-60, were given systematic guidance to organize Social education activities. They were encouraged to form study circles and also to organize Social Education Squads. More than 6,800 copies of books were sent to the District Social Education Officers for distribution to these libraries.

Attempts were also made to put the library movement in the State on a sounder footing.

* * *

A new degree college has been started at New Barrackpur, 24-Parganas, under a

Collegiate Education in West Bengal

jointly sponsored scheme of the Union Ministry of Rehabilitation and the State Education Department.

The College will mainly cater for the educational needs of displaced students from East Pakistan. The estimated capital expenditure is Rs. 6.98 lakhs.

Another residential college sponsored on the same basis has been started at Narendrapur, 24-Parganas, which will admit only Honours students.

Three-year degree course has been introduced in all the colleges of the State from this academic year.

* * *

West Bengal Government has sanctioned the establishment of five Junior Technical schools at a total non-

Technical Education in West Bengal

recurring cost of Rs. 55.40 lakhs at Jalpaiguri, Krishnanagar, Asansol,

Hooghly and Kalimpong.

Of the six existing Junior Technical schools, three are being developed according to the Government of India scheme at a total non-recurring cost of Rs. 33.24 lakhs.

* * *

The Board of High School and Intermediate Education, Uttar Pradesh has introduced Engineering courses

General Engineering Courses in the High School and Intermediate Examinations in U.P.

in the High school (Technical) and Intermediate (Technical) examinations

from July, 1957, in order to prepare efficient and skilled workmen with a background of sound general education. Admissions to the course are made after holding attainment tests to candidates in Mathematics and Science and psychological tests for general intelligence and capacity to visualize and manipulate objects in three dimensions. It is a four-year course with General Engineering at the High school stage (Classes IX and X) branching off into Mechanical Engineering or Electrical Engineering in classes XI and XII.

The Engineering course has been introduced in 10 Government institutions at Meerut, Moradabad, Allahabad, Jhansi, Kanpur, Gyanpur (Varanasi), Deoria, Faizabad, Pilibhit and Lucknow and one non-Government institution at Fatehgarh. It is expected that about 125 boys will be passing Intermediate (Technical) examination in Mechanical or Electrical Engineering from 1961 onwards. The institutions have well-equipped workshops and laboratories with adequate provision for intensive workshop practice and laboratory training, besides good libraries, modern teaching aids, and provision for games and athletics.

At the High school stage, the boys devote weekly 32 periods including 14 practical, out of 48, and at the Intermediate stage 36 periods, including 14 practical, out of 52, to the Engineering and allied subjects.

Moreover, to keep the students in touch with the work and conditions prevailing in the factories, provision has also been made for classes XI and XII to visit different factories regularly. The candidates have to submit detailed and illustrated visit-reports which are assessed at the time of final examination.

This Engineering course is essentially a terminal course preparing for direct

employment. The candidates who are inclined to pursue a graduate course in Engineering may appear at the Intermediate (Science) examination after one year.

* * *

An eight-day National Seminar on the Training of Primary Teachers was inaugurated on October 3, 1960 by Dr. K. L. Shrimali, Union Minister for Education, at New Delhi. Representatives of the States and the Union Ministry of Education participated in the Seminar.

The Seminar, the first of its kind, considered detailed reports prepared by the Union Ministry of Education on the status, selection, recruitment, remuneration and other service conditions of Primary teachers in every State. Proposals for the expansion of training facilities in the different States were also discussed.

Problems pertaining to the content of training, equipment, incentives for bringing in more women teachers, reduction of wastage and orientation of school teachers in community development also came up for discussion.

* * *

The Fourth Conference of the Indian National Commission for Cooperation with Unesco concluded its two-day session at New Delhi on October 26, 1960 under the Chairmanship of Dr. K. L. Shrimali, Union Minister for Education. The Conference approved the composition of the Indian Delegation to the 11th General Conference beginning in Paris on November 14, 1960.

The Commission also approved the resolution to be sponsored by the Indian Delegation at the Unesco Conference. These resolutions emphasise: decentralisation of the programme activities and operations of Unesco; active collaboration of the National

Commission with the programme, resolutions and work-plans adopted by the General Conference; higher priority to the establishment of new institutions and agencies for furthering international cooperation in all fields of Unesco; and, constitution of the permanent secretariat of the organisation as a body more fully representative of all the great cultures and important regions of the world.

To make the National Commission more effective and broad-based, it was decided that instead of the present three Sub-Commissions on Education, Science and Culture, there should be five Sub-Commissions, conforming to the principal areas of Unesco's programmes: (a) Education, (b) Natural Sciences, (c) Social Sciences, (d) Cultural Activities, and (e) Mass Communication.

Considering the huge magnitude of the 20-year programme drawn up at the Karachi meeting of the Asian Member-States for the introduction of universal, free and compulsory Primary education in Asia, the Indian Delegation will urge that the Unesco programmes for compulsory Primary education in Asia should be sanctioned for a period of 20 years; the funds allocated to the programme should be substantially increased, and a Regional Training Centre for Teacher-Educators should be included in the programme for 1961-62.

The other points which the Indian Delegation will stress include: asking for the allotment of more adequate resources for the development of Unesco's Major Project on the Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values; adequate financial and technical assistance to the under-developed countries to develop and improve programmes for science teaching at the Secondary school level; utilisation of the National Commissions in promoting the work of Unesco in the respective countries; cheap production of scientific and technical books in the under-developed

countries; and investigation into the problem of Higher education for rural communities in economically under-developed countries with view to formulating programme for the furtherance of Higher education in the rural areas of such countries.

● THE FOREIGN SCENE ●

Educators from 19 countries and territories of Africa, including six newly-independent nations, met recently in Uganda to discuss basic problems of African education.

In three formal meetings and several informal ones, they discussed the ways of improving "East-West" understanding, revising school health programme, strengthening teacher organizations, and other aspects of African education.

About 90 persons participated in the meetings of the African Regional Conference sponsored by the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession.

In discussing "East-West" understanding the Conference suggested that "the best solution for Africa lies in the integration of the best in African, Asian and European cultures".

Various aspects of child health, relating not only to the person of the pupil but also to his environment, school, home and playing field were studied by three discussion-groups after consideration of a synthesis prepared by the WCOTP Secretariat and of comments made by experts on this subject. The groups urged that precautions be taken by the employing agency, the government and the community to ensure continued good health of the teacher by reducing hazards, overwork and other debilitating factors.

In discussing teacher-organization, it was pointed out that lack of unity weakens

negotiating power and slows down the progress and development of general education. "Forces causing disunity cannot and should not be tolerated at any level or in any situation. The educational field should be regarded as a composite unit in itself, with pupils passing from one stage to another."

The Conference urged upon the teacher-organizations in Africa to take part in seminars and other projects designed to provide training for their organizational personnel. It requested WCOTP to undertake in collaboration with Unesco, a survey of the status of the teaching profession in Africa.

An informal meeting on Adult education recommended greater governmental expenditures on housing, roads, water supply and sewage disposal as a means of improving the health of students and adults; that radio sets be produced more cheaply; and that more effective use be made of radio programmes for Adult education.

A similar meeting on Physical education, health and recreation urged that teachers in Primary schools be given in-service training in health education; that programmes be adapted to suit individual physiques and cultural background; that at least one African centre on the professional level be established to train African Physical education specialists.

* * *

A comprehensive plan covering agricultural education in technical colleges and farm institutes was announced this summer by the Minister of Education, U.K., who has endorsed proposals put forward by the Advisory Sub-Committee on Agricultural Education. This Committee has been considering the report (published in December, 1958) of the De La Warr Committee which undertook a comprehensive review of the provision of education in the agricultural industry. The Advisory Sub-Committee's report

New Scheme for
Agricultural Education
in U.K.

and its recommendations, have been fully accepted by the Government. These include :

1. A widely ranging programme of education, including both part-time and full-time study, for the school-leaver intending to enter the agricultural industry.
2. The extension of facilities for further education in agricultural subjects, in order that students with varying abilities and education may profit from these facilities.
3. Progressive syllabuses and courses of study which will enable students to go on from one level of achievement to another.

The Ministries of Agriculture and Education are both concerned that more facilities should be available for part-time courses, as these provide the only practical answer when a young worker cannot be spared from the farm for a full-time course or needs further education before qualifying for admission to a full-time course.

The organisation of education for agriculture below the level of agricultural colleges and universities will be the duty of local education authorities, but the Committee has stressed the need for close co-operation and consultation with the local farming interests in order that local needs and circumstances are met. The farmers in turn are urged to accept their share of responsibility for practical training and to release their young workers for part-time courses.

The local education authorities will also be responsible for providing the necessary teaching accommodation. Existing facilities (farm institutes, technical colleges, country farms or other establishments) will be used, and in some cases new buildings may be provided.

This plan, which has the full support of the National Farmers' Union, will greatly increase the opportunities for young agricul-

tural employees to obtain systematic education and training, and both the farmer and the agricultural industry as a whole will benefit as these opportunities are available of.

* * *

An "Educational Society of the USSR" has recently been founded in Moscow. It is a voluntary association Educational Society attached to the Central in the U.S.S.R. Committee of the Teaching Trade Union, open to all teachers at all levels and comprising specialised sections : didactic, theory and methods of communist education, pre-Primary education, home education, school administration, "defectology", educational training, etc. Among the objectives of the association, both at national and international levels, participation in educational congresses and conferences and establishing contacts with similar institutions in other countries figure notably.

* * *

According to a White Paper recently published by the Japanese Ministry of Education, the illiteracy rate in Japan is from two to three per cent which places this country roughly on

Education in Japan

the same level as the United Kingdom and the United States. However, the length of schooling a Japanese receives, is shorter : 30 per cent of the children attend school for more than nine years (50 per cent in the United States), and only 6 per cent attend for more than thirteen years. With regard to school attendance (99.8%) Japan is on the same level as the United Kingdom, the United States, the German Federal Republic and France. Some 53 per cent of those who have finished compulsory education proceed to upper Secondary schools at present. The total number of students in universities and Higher education institutes has more than trebled since the war; in the case of women students, their number has increased more than sevenfold. The average number of pupils per classroom in Primary schools is 44 at present. In 1959,

it was estimated that the number of needed classrooms in Primary schools totalled 15,000 and as many as 4,200 were needed in Secondary schools. To cope with the situation, the Japanese Ministry of Education has drafted a five-year plan to increase classrooms in public schools by 1963 and to eliminate the shortage.

* * *

Shortage of Secondary school teachers is a serious problem in Turkey as 3,500 teachers in the country do not possess the required qualifications. To overcome this shortage, doctors, engineers or civil servants have been engaged, who devote five to six hours a week to Secondary teaching. Pamphlets on education and method have been distributed by the Turkish Ministry of Education to help these teachers who have not received any professional training. The Ministry also runs summer courses and seminars for university graduates, particularly married women wishing to teach in Secondary schools. After completing these courses, candidates take examinations which qualify them to teach.

* * *

The Twenty-third International Conference on Public Education, jointly organised by Unesco and the International Bureau of Education was held in Geneva from 6th to 15th July this year. The Conference adopted two Recommendations (Nos. 50 and 51) dealing respectively with the preparation and issuing of general Secondary school curricula, and the organisation of special education for mentally handicapped children.

The first recommendation comprises 43 clauses grouped under seven headings: General Principles Governing the Preparation of Curricula; Principles Relating to the Structure of Education; Principles Relating to the Content of Syllabus;

Drafting Procedure; Issuing Procedure; Application; and International Aspects of the Problem. Some excerpts from the Recommendation are reproduced below.

When drawing up general Secondary school curricula, the following points must be taken into consideration: (a) the various aims assigned to this type of education; (b) its structure, whether uniform in character or organised in stages and divisions; (c) the relative importance to be given to each subject or group of subjects; (d) the environment in which the pupils live and receive their education; (e) the pupils' capacity for assimilation and the needs and interests of their ages and sex.

A proper balance should be maintained in the relative importance given in curricula and syllabuses to such things as the pupil's intellectual, moral, social, manual, physical and aesthetic education, in order to insure the complete and harmonious development of the individual child.

To achieve this balance, it is desirable to bear in mind when drawing up curricula, the varied contribution which each subject can make not only to the pupil's store of factual knowledge, but also to the development of his personality and to his attitude to the world around him.

Syllabuses should be divided up into years of study, taking into account the appropriate objectives for each grade, the abilities, achievements and interests of pupils of various ages, and the actual time available for instruction.

To avoid over-loading of curriculum, the introduction of new subject-matter into the curriculum should be offset by the removal of other matter which has become of less importance, and syllabuses should offer a selection of essential topics rather than an accumulation of material.

The preparation of curricula for general Secondary education should be the work of specialised bodies on which teachers should always be represented.

When syllabuses are prepared by groups of specialists it is desirable to ensure the coordination of these different groups.

In order to link the school more closely with its cultural, social and economic environment, it is advisable that the parents and representatives of the different bodies which for various reasons are interested in general Secondary education should have the opportunity of expressing their views on the curriculum.

Authorities responsible for the preparation of curricula should allow for a period of investigation, bearing, among other things, on (a) children's characteristics and rate of development at an age affected by the problems of adolescence; (b) significant scientific progress in the various fields covered by the subjects taught; (c) up to date information provided by both general and special didactics; (d) the scientific and educational training of the teachers involved; (e) current trends in the cultural, social and economic fields; (f) comparative studies of the syllabuses used in other countries; (g) the results of experiments carried out in this connection either within the country or abroad.

Before curricula are finally accepted, they should, if possible, be tried out under expert supervision either in experimental schools or in carefully selected ordinary schools; in any case they should be introduced gradually to facilitate such modification as may prove necessary.

It is desirable that syllabuses should be considered as a guide and a concrete aid rather than as a rigid set of regulations excluding due adaptation and reasonable liberty for the teacher.

The second recommendation concerning the "Organisation of Special Education for Mentally Handicapped Children" consists of 41 clauses grouped under eight headings: Identification; Compulsory Schooling; Administration and Inspection; Special Education System; Programmes and Methods of Education; Vocational Train-

ing and Post-School Care; Staff; International Cooperation. Here are some excerpts from the Recommendation.

It is essential that wherever circumstances permit, the identification of mentally handicapped children should be carried out at the very beginning of the schooling period, and if possible even before they attend school.

To this end it is important that techniques of observation and psychological measurement on the one hand, and the methods of diagnosis available to the various specialists on the other hand, should be improved in order that identification may be as objective as possible, so avoiding, among other things, confusion between children with true mental limitation and those whose deficiency is merely apparent.

All educable mentally handicapped children have the same right to education as other children; it follows therefore that the education authorities have an imperative duty to provide for them an education suited to their needs.

In countries where the extent of special education justifies it, it is useful to institute a specialized branch of the education service to contribute to the development of education for all categories of handicapped children, particularly by coordinating efforts made in this field.

In view of the diversity of forms of mental deficiency and the particular circumstances of each case, it is important to provide various kinds of classes and establishments, thus enabling education to be differentiated.

It is necessary to avoid as far as possible the complete separation of the mentally handicapped child from his environment, and, in particular, from more gifted children, though he should not be made to compete with them in fields in which he will prove inferior; for this reason, it is desirable to open special classes in ordinary schools.

Instruction should be highly individual, so that it may be adapted to the particular abilities, needs and pace of each child; it should also allow for group activities, whether work or play, in order to develop the pupils' social sense.

Stress should be laid on the following in the education of the mentally handicapped children : speech therapy; play, physical and rhythmical education, music and choral singing, drawing and the visual arts; handicrafts. Collaboration between the school and the family is particularly necessary.

Post-school care is indispensable for mentally handicapped children and services providing such care should be extended both on the official and the private planes.

Special education demands from both teachers and educators qualities of self-sacrifice, patience and tact without which specialised training, however thorough, cannot bear fruit.

The salaries of teachers and supervisors should adequately reflect the difficulty of their task and any additional training they may have received.

Indian Journal of Educational Administration and Research

The Ministry of Education, Government of India, has started this journal recently. It is published quarterly and presents information and contemporary articles of opinion on educational administration and research. It also provides light and interesting material on the subject.

The inaugural (Summer 1960) and the Autumn 1960 issues are out. Price : Rs. 2 per copy. Annual subscription Rs. 6. Editorial enquiries may be addressed to :

The Editor,
**Indian Journal of Educational Administration
and Research,**

**Research & Publications Division, 'M' Block,
Ministry of Education, Government of India,
NEW DELHI**



book r e v i e w s

The Writer and His World, by *Charles Morgan*; Published by Macmillan & Co.; 1960; price 21 sh. net.

This is a collection of Charles Morgan's speeches and essays which we owe to the piety of his literary executors and publishers. They were delivered and written over a period of twenty-five years but one can see the connecting thread which runs through them.

One always likes to know from the horse's mouth what a writer makes of his world and the testament of faith of a man of Morgan's quality is bound to be well worth study. Morgan was a writer who took himself and his work seriously. He had very definite views as to a writer's responsibilities. To know clearly what he had to say and to say it clearly was a writer's prime duty. Morgan himself hated to talk above the heads of his audience or, as he puts it, to be 'above the battle'. Not to be lucid was to sin against the light.

His 'high seriousness' naturally made him rate the writer's independence very high. It was a treasure which had to be guarded with eyes of fire and fangs of flame. It was subject to assault from all sides and he warns would-be writers to be perpetually on their guard against current catchwords minted by authoritarian forces of every kind. He has a rooted faith in fiction (of which he himself was no mean practitioner) and held that "it is one of

the functions of story-telling to unfreeze the imaginative stream, to enable it flow again"—an injunction which is axiomatic but not always sufficiently laid to heart.

Morgan's precept—and practice—can be summed up in one word—sincerity—a quality of mind which will save the writer from the pitfalls which beset his path. To sincerity, add serenity (not always easy to achieve), and your work will gain in grace, dignity and permanent value.

This quality of sincerity was a feature of Trollope's work. Trollope, after having been cold-shouldered for some time, is coming into his own again. Trollope, Morgan reminds us, knew his limitations, but within his limits, he was sound. He had the tradesman's mentality (which was a good stick in the hands of his detractors to beat him with) and loved to make a lot of money (there was no reason why he shouldn't) and made it. However, he earned every penny of it and enjoyed his mounting success, which he had every right to do.

Morgan had no illusions about the difficulties of the writer's art. It is a hard apprenticeship which every writer has to serve and Morgan knew, as every writer knows, the amount of elbow-grease which goes into any worthwhile work.

Charles Morgan had a sensitive mind and we see it in this collections of essays and addresses. Unhumorous in grain, he

had a gentle temperament and he allowed his eye to roam expertly over the moves, moods and attitudes of contemporary man. He reacted to them in the way we would have done, only he was more alert but not palpably or patronisingly so. To those who are familiar with his writings, this collection will give nothing but pleasure and will bring back before their minds a personality who was wise and gracious and possessed a sympathetic insight.

K. NAGARAJAN

Financing Higher Education—1960-70,
 Edited by *Dexter M. Keezer*; Published
 by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.,
 New York, 1959; pp. 304; price \$ 2.

This book is the outcome of an intensive study of the complex problems of financing higher education in the United States of America in the decade ending in 1970. It consists of twelve papers written by twelve of the country's prominent educators on different aspects of the problems of higher education. Its chief aim is to find a way out for the ever growing demands on higher education in America. The papers were discussed in a twelve-day seminar, which enabled the writers to exchange ideas and findings not merely among themselves but also with other distinguished educationists, economists, journalists, industrialists and businessmen who were assembled together with the cooperation of the Merrill Center for Economics of Amherst College. Quite appropriately, the McGraw-Hill Book Company have published the papers based on such intensive thinking and discussion to mark their fiftieth anniversary of the study of Economics of higher education in the U.S.A.

The papers dealing with such diverse subjects as 'An Economist's Over View of Higher Education', 'The Role of Research in Economics of Universities', 'Long Range Planning: A case Study', 'The Role of Student Charges', etc., written by experts in each field are not independent dissertations but are related to one another. Each

subsequent paper, for example, gives a gist of some of the specific issues dealt with in the earlier ones which have particular relevance on the subjects discussed later.

With the prospect of the total enrolment in colleges and universities rising from 3.5 million in 1958-59 to 6.4 million by 1970 and the annual expenditure on higher education rising from the present figure of \$ 4 billion to about \$ 10 billion in course of ten years, the problem is admittedly colossal. But American thought and organization are prepared to face the issue. The book under review written by twelve eminent persons actively connected with teaching, research, educational administration, education trusts and with public and private enterprises is an extraordinary collaboration which shows the determination of the American intelligentsia to find a solution for all probable and possible eventualities. Recent reviews of certain other American publication in *THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY*, namely, "Autonomy of Public Colleges: the Challenge of Co-ordination" by Lyman A. Glenny and "The Issues in University Education" edited by Charles Frankel, show how the educationists and educational organizations in America are fully alive to their responsibilities and are preparing to meet the challenge of the times.

The present work has the distinction of being a close and minute study of the key phases of the financing of higher education in the States. The possibilities of help from federal, state and industrial sectors have all been envisaged. Each method of financial assistance has been subjected to searching and meticulous exploration. There is happily the optimistic note that the possibility of the successful financing of higher education in the U.S.A. is indeed a very formidable, but by no means an impossible, undertaking.

Incidentally, it may be mentioned that the paper under the title "Potentialities of Educational Establishments outside the

"Conventional Structure of Higher Education" by Professor Harold F. Clark gives an interesting and informative description of how business and industrial organizations and the military establishments in America are helping to further research and development of education by setting up a system that rivals in size and complexity the system of higher education in colleges and universities. Business and industry are, in fact, using as many scientists and engineers in research and development as the colleges and universities are using staff for all purposes. Similarly, the defence department of the U.S.A. provides facilities for critical research in subjects like electronics, radar, jet-engine, weapons system, fire control and missile training and various other fields including psychological problems, medical services, etc. Even apart from the expenditure on research by the military establishment, the research and education budgets of many of the business and industrial companies are far larger than the total expenditure of any of the universities in America for all their purposes.

The book deserves careful study by those who have to plan the future financing of higher education in India.

SUKUMAR BHATTACHARYA

Our Children's Education, by John Armitage; Published by Pall Mall Press, London; 1960; pp. 96; price 9 sh. 6d.

John Armitage in his book *Our Children's Education* gives a fascinating account of the English educational system and how it compares with its counterparts in America and Russia. Using the device of letters written to an American friend, he relates humorously yet vividly the main facts about the growth of different types of schools and universities in England. Having been in daily touch with the academic and educational sphere of his country since 1948 when he was Chairman of the education advisory committee of the Liberal party, the author deals with the educational

problems that face parents and educators alike in a most logical and convincing manner that will appeal to the students of education in India.

Do we need good Primary schools where there is "movement, life, interest and learning" and where teachers have a sense of vocation and a love of little children? Can we have normal schools attached to High schools wherein matriculates could be trained to become Primary school teachers? Does our system of education provide for sifting suitable talent for different professions—academic, services, technical, commercial, agricultural—at the right age? What is our attitude to public/independent schools? Should they continue to be places wherein education can be bought as any other commodity by the rich alone without their being accused of developing a two-nation theory in the long run? Or is it possible to give a large number of scholarships to all the deserving talent to receive the benefit of good education in such institutions aiming to produce men of integrity and character without snatching in any way their independence from State control? Have we a system of selection that restricts admission to particular types of institutions and universities of the really deserving, who come with a thirst for knowledge and high ideals of conduct? How should we assess a boy's work at the Secondary stage level? Do we prefer external examinations to internal assessment? Such are the thought-provoking questions that the reader is likely to ask himself when he goes through this book. He would also at the same time be prompted to find suitable solutions to these knotty problems.

There are a few points raised in the book which one may not easily accept. It is not understood why 10 per cent of the children of school going age can benefit by academic education in grammar schools and only 5 per cent out of these from the universities. When it is not possible to judge aptitude at the young age of 11 plus, how far is it fair to subject 80 per cent of children to an inferiority complex simply because the

grammar schools offer only 20 per cent places. There seems little justification for converting Primary schools into cramming establishments, a tendency resulting from the eleven plus test. The scheme sponsored by the educational authorities of Leicestershire to educate all boys in High schools up to the age of 14 appears a sound one and may commend itself to other L.E.A.'s in England.

What strikes one most is the approach to education in England. English education like the English constitution is elastic and flexible. Education in England is the Government charge and yet the best schools are private and independent. The State's function is "to make the outline plan and promote the education and progressive development of educational institutions for providing a varied and comprehensive service in every area." Thus we find that all types of schools—public, grammar, technical and Secondary Modern—State and independent—flourish to serve the cause of English education. The different types of schools, however, are not competitive—they are rather complementary to one another.

DIN DAYAL

Changing Images of America—A study of Indian Students' Perceptions, by George V. Coelho; Published by Asia Publishing House, Bombay; 1959; price Rs. 11.50

Over thirty thousand foreign students are studying in the United States of America. In addition to acquiring professional knowledge and skill, they are developing an appreciation of the American way of life and perhaps lasting ties of friendship. Almost every country in the modern world is developing exchange-of-persons programmes. As in some other walks of international life, the U.S.A. is the pioneer of these exchange programmes. The student going abroad represents a unique type of visitor in a foreign land. He enjoys a better status than the tourist, the diplomat or the businessman in so far as he has

more 'opportunities' for coming close to the host people.

Dr. Coelho has carried on a very useful investigation in studying the reaction of Indian students in the U.S.A. The study throws light on the various aspects of acculturation of students. The title of the book aptly describes the 'changing images'. The new comer in the U.S.A. is dazed by the pattern of life! He is amazed at the glories of democratic freedom. First there is the initial flush of enthusiasm, appreciation and goodwill. Then there are cases of extreme bitterness, disillusion and disappointment. And finally if the student happens to stay long enough he acquires a balanced and objective viewpoint with regard to all the strengths and weaknesses of the American way of life. He also indulges in an objective and comparative assessment of Indian and American cultures.

Dr. Coelho's study refutes the naive notion that if foreigners come to the U.S.A. they will adopt American attitudes. The only Indian students whom Dr. Coelho found inclined to the American way of life were those who had stayed for a long time and were hoping to settle down in the U.S.A. But curiously enough, in such cases, their understanding of their own culture was found rapidly vanishing. It is noteworthy that having acquired the maximum value from their stay and study in the U.S.A., the students who were returning to India acquired objectivity and not conversion. After about three years' stay they acquired a detached outlook on life and were able, on the one hand, to appreciate their own culture more critically and on the other, to understand the culture of their host country better but their values were not shaken.

There have been several studies of this type. Three of them are quite well-known and must be mentioned here because they complement the study of Dr. Coelho. They are "Western Educated Man in India" by Useem; "American Images of India and China" by Harold Isaacs; and a study by Professor Kaliprasad, Vice-Chancellor,

Lucknow University, who has investigated the reaction and attitudes of a group of students who never left home. Dr. Coelho has studied the reaction and images of four groups of Indian students. They were divided into groups on the basis of the length of their stay in the U.S.A.—the range covers a stay of one week or less to over four years. One of the findings by Dr. Coelho's research is that a stay of three years will show a substantial gain if one were to judge the results of foreign education by the student's attainment of understanding and wisdom of the host's culture rather than by the degree of his liking for the host. Therefore as a practical matter, one-year exchange programme for students should be replaced by two or three years' exchange programme.

Another significant finding of Dr. Coelho's study is that after a stay of four years the student begins to lose his role of cultural ambassador. When the student first arrives, he talks politics and imagines himself as a cultural ambassador. After sometime, he perceives the fullness of life and talks more of religion, education and social customs. He begins to substitute his personal and professional problems for concern with America and India.

There can be no better appreciation of the contribution of Dr. Coelho than the words of Dr. Gordon D. Allport in his Foreword for *Changing Images of America*—"This little book pushes forward the frontiers of modern social science. By using imaginative evaluational procedures it tells us what gains we may and may not expect from one phase of our exchange-of-persons programmes. If the results are not altogether rosy, they are at least realistic. And it is on the grounds of realism that all our international policies should be formed. Here then is one more significant contribution on contemporary social science towards making firm and sensible our dealings with people of other nations."

G. CHAURASIA

Introduction to Counselling, by E. L. Tolbert; Published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York; 1959; p. 322, price \$ 5.95.

Introduction to Counselling is just another book on the popular theme of counselling. In the preface of the text, the author describes the way in which counselling is regarded as an indispensable pupil service in the present day educational system. The very fact that effective education must meet the needs and interests of the pupils and the society alike, has created a greater demand for counselling in schools and colleges.

The organisation of the book is in terms of the developmental tasks of the counselling process itself, namely, the nature, operation and evaluation of counselling. In the early chapters, the author attempts to draw together and organise the basic theories and hypotheses, and concepts of counselling. Then he focusses his attention on the first and second steps in counselling, i.e., the study of the individual and occupational opportunities respectively. Throughout the book, counselling is viewed as the main service of the guidance programme with all other services supporting it in its process of helping individuals. The functions of collecting important and relevant information about the individuals and the occupational opportunities, and of placement and follow-up services are thus seen as being planned to make the counselling adequate and effective. There are several problems that are peculiar to counselling in schools. The book applies to all types of problems—educational, vocational and social. Finally, evaluation is made with regard to the outcomes of counselling, relating these to the total educative process. The above are the significant features of the volume which make it a valuable contribution to the counselling practice and theory.

To provide material for further study the author has prepared a long bibliography at the end of the book, and throughout the book references have been made, where necessary. Each chapter includes appro-

appropriate illustrated materials of counselling case to enable the reader to understand and feel the practical touch to theoretical principles, and to develop counselling competency. At the end of each chapter are the 'Summary', 'Checks on Understanding', and 'Things to Do' for better review of and class discussion on the content of the book.

The author, being actively engaged in counselling work, has based the work upon a thorough knowledge of all counselling literature and important researches in the field.

Though the book is primarily intended for Secondary school educators, it may be equally useful for the students who are taking a beginning course in guidance and counselling, either as a part of teacher education programme or as an introduction to the in-service teachers in the field who are concerned with developing and improving an effective counselling programme. The book is so designed that students of education, teachers and even administrators may get an over-all view of counselling and at the same time get an opportunity "to explore the counselling field as a possible area of educational specialization". Further, all persons who are concerned with personality in its developmental aspects either from preventive or remedial side may also find this volume very beneficial, for it presents a well-conceived methodology of counselling.

SUNITEE DUTT

A Practical Introduction to Measurement and Evaluation, by H. H. Remmers, N. L. Gage and T. F., Rummel; Published by Harper and Brothers, New York; 1960; pp. xiii +370; price \$ 4.75.

The volume under review is intended for the classroom teacher, administrator and student-teacher in the United States. Its chief merit lies in the comprehensive interpretation of the term evaluation. It includes in its purview evaluation for scholastic aptitude, achievement, special abilities, interests,

attitudes, health and physical status, home and family relationships, emotional and social experience and work experience. It familiarises the reader with a wide variety of tools for evaluation, e.g., measures of intelligence, achievement and the other aspects just mentioned. In doing this, however, it runs into its main difficulty. The treatment in a large number of cases has, of necessity, to be summary. The kind of introductory survey which this book thus becomes tends to leave room for a great deal of other reading or experience for achieving practical mastery with the exception, of course, of one or two matters to be mentioned presently. To say this is not to decry the utility of a survey of this kind. The classroom teacher, or the administrator, for that matter, is perhaps expected to know what a good evaluation programme should consist of rather than be capable of constructing good instruments of all kinds themselves. His business lies in an intelligent use of tools, in knowing where to look for expert assistance. This the book largely succeeds in doing. It also treats statistical concepts and procedures which the teachers (and administrator) should find useful in understanding test literature and using it.

In line with the general purposes of the book, considerable space (71 pages) has been devoted to the construction of teacher-made tests. The age-old controversy on essay and short answer type tests is dealt with. Some good suggestions on the mechanics of test construction, viz., writing good essay type as well as the various kinds of objective test items are given. This is good as far as it goes. But, as those connected with the reform of examinations in our country are well aware, the *content* of questions, and not merely their form, deserves much more attention than it has so far received. One would wish that the clarity and care which characterised the exposition of the different types of objectives of instruction, viz., knowledge, understanding, application of principles, interpretation of data etc. in chapter 7 (Identification of Educa-

tional Objectives) were also visible in dealing with test items. Unfortunately the book does not attend to the important business of constructing test items (*i.e.*, writing objective or essay type questions) corresponding to the various objectives listed. One misses, too, a discussion of the uses to which a teacher can and should put the responses on test items.

The book is well edited and clearly written complete with summaries at the beginning of each chapter, very specific and detailed suggestions for further reading at the close, appendices containing lists of publishers of test materials and a glossary of common terms in the field of measurement. Useful as it might prove to the practising American teacher, its utility in this country is likely to be limited. The student of measurement or evaluation at the bachelor's or master's level will miss details over the very wide field covered and the practising teacher tips on the one aspect of evaluation which can under the best of circumstances concern him in this country, *viz.*, testing for specific objectives particularly objectives other than knowledge. Libraries might do well to possess a copy all the same.

SNEHLATA SHUKLA

Comparative Education, by Dr. L. Mukherjee; Published by Kitab Mahal, Allahabad; 1959; price Rs. 7.50.

The two hundred and eighty pages of this book are packed with enormous information about education in the U.K., the British Commonwealth, the U.S.A., Central and South America, Northern and Western Europe, Mediterranean Lands and Central Asia. The reader has before him a vast store of information about every country under the sun, ranging from the biggest to the smallest. Quite a few readers would become breathless in counting the countries enumerated in the book. The scholarly type of reader may have a feeling of disappointment and even of irritation because the

author does not delve deep into the problems. The author presents a vast panorama of the educational world but keeps the reader on the surface. Imagine the plight of a swimmer in only knee-deep waters!

But the purpose of the author is to write a textbook for B.Ed. students. Perhaps the author's claim in the sub-title of the book "For Students and Educationists" is open to question unless, of course, we have different connotations of the term "educationist". Anyway, the present book is useful for B.Ed. students everywhere from the academic angle. If the B.Ed. student reads the book carefully he would have at his command numerous facts about the system of education in various countries. But there is a snag. In most Indian universities the B.Ed. syllabus does not prescribe a comparative study of so many countries. They include only two or three countries—the U.K., the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. The more respectable professors in Training colleges in India find it *infra dig* to discuss educational systems of small countries in small classes of B.Ed. students! And, believe me, the hardest thing in India today is to persuade any student at any level to read something not prescribed in the syllabus!!

It is gratifying that the book comes from a Professor of Education having long experience of teaching the subject at the university. His experience is enriched by his recent travels in the U.S.A., the U.K., France and Scandinavia and his valuable contacts with leading educationalists at Harvard, Chicago, Minnesota, Wisconsin, London, Birmingham, Manchester, Edinburgh, St. Andrews, Paris and Copenhagen Universities. There is thus no doubt that Dr. Mukherjee is quite competent to handle the subject of comparative education. Unfortunately, the author is not quite sound in his thesis stated in the Preface—"There are some excellent books on comparative education written by American or British authors, but they are not quite suitable to our students.....(because) they are meant for the students of those lands,with the rapidly changing pattern of

education, they cannot keep pace with modern trends,.....they do not always give the historical factors out of which the present practice has evolved." Any reader who has the patience to examine the three well-known classics on comparative education written by Sandiford, Nicholas Hans and I. L. Kandel, would readily agree that all the three statements made above are baseless. Nobody can write a good book on comparative education only for the students and readers of his country. It is true that because of his personal knowledge, the author would appear more convincing when speaking of his own country and would succeed in providing better insight and understanding of his own system of education. But in the year 1959 nobody can write a book on comparative education only for his countrymen. To justify the name, a good book on comparative education should be useful to readers and students of all the countries dealt with in the book.

The author says in his Preface, "An attempt has been made to trace the present system from historical traditions and the guiding philosophy of the respective countries which has been described as impartially as is perhaps humanly possible....If it serves the purpose of giving its readers a wider outlook of the educational practices of other lands, as well as in creating an insight into the historical forces that have created them, the author's labours will be amply rewarded." A discerning reader meets with disappointment if he tries to justify these claims of the author. The descriptions in the book are so sketchy and disconnected that there is hardly any chance of the author's hopes being fulfilled. The author should have been more judicious in writing the Preface. It is very annoying to come across a list of reference books and questions and exercises after every six to ten pages. It would have been better to give the reference books and exercises at the end of every chapter. The book is full of printing errors. Let us hope the Printer's Devil would be more kind to the readers in the next edition of the book.

All said and done, it must be admitted that *Comparative Education* is a praiseworthy attempt in a field of education that is growing exceedingly important for international peace and goodwill. It should be studied by B.Ed. and M.Ed. students all over the country.

G. CHAURASIA

British Education in Africa, by R. J. Mason;
Published by Oxford University Press;
London; 1959.

In a short compass of 150 pages, the author has been able to discuss all the problems facing the authorities in the present or former British colonies in Africa on the educational front.

In Chapter I, the author discusses the various concepts and objects of education. In Chapter II, he gives a complete description of the educational system as it exists in Britain today. In Chapters III, IV, V, VI and VII, the problems of education in Africa are discussed. In the final Chapter, the author discusses the present and the future policies to be followed in Africa.

The reviewer feels that this book can be best reviewed if the concept of the 'Take Off' can be applied to education policy. The 'Take Off' stage has arrived for a country if the following conditions are present :—

- (1) The level of economic organisation is such that a major proportion of the economic resources of the area are utilised in the production of goods and services,
- (2) The national income of the country has risen to such a level that only a relatively small proportion needs to be used for the purpose of education,
- (3) The organisation of economy has reached a stage where it can afford to dispense with the labour of that section of population which is below the age of 14 in

the production of goods and services,

- (4) A sufficient number of teacher training institutions are in operation, and
- (5) Buildings and plant for the purpose of schools exist to a reasonable extent.

Once the 'Take Off' stage has arrived, further development in the field of education would be in the nature of self-growth and the State need not worry too much on this score.

Judged in this context of the 'Take Off' stage, Britain had partially arrived about the year 1830 and since that year the growth in the number of schools, teacher training institutions, universities, etc. has been considerable. Applying the same concept, it would appear that no present or former colony in Africa has arrived at the 'Take Off' stage. Here in India also we have not arrived at the 'Take Off' stage. The other day when Dr. Shrimali, the Minister of Education, declared in Parliament that it would not be possible at the present stage to provide college education for everybody who sought admission, there were angry protests. The Minister was, however, only describing a situation in the country as it is and it cannot be changed for the better for quite a long period to come. Industrialism will have to come first and only at a slightly later stage, or at best simultaneously with it, will come the compulsory education of an increasingly larger section of the population.

It is not realised that education is a very costly and expensive proposition. If compulsory primary education is to be introduced, the fundamental question that is to be answered is, "What proportion of the population is of school going age and what is the proportion of the economically active population that will be paying for the education of the school going sector?" In advanced countries, the proportion of population below the age of 14 is small and the

proportion of economically active persons between the ages of 15 and 50 is correspondingly high. What this means is that the vast majority of the working population works hard in order that a small proportion of the population between the ages of 7 and 14 may be educated. In the reverse situation where the proportion of population below the age of 14 is large, say varying between 20 and 25 per cent, and the economically active population is not so large, it would mean that a smaller section of the population is working in order to provide the amenity of education for a much larger sector of the population. In simple terms, this means that there is a very heavy burden on a comparatively smaller section of the people. Further in a situation where the economy is rather under-developed and national income and per-capita income are small, the diversion of even a small proportion of this income to non-immediate profit-bearing activities, such as education, means a heavy burden on the people.

In Africa, where the economy was (and still is) primarily pastoral and agricultural, where transport facilities have been either small or non-existent, the national income of each country was (and continues to be) small. The expenditure on administration and Government is, in such a context, disproportionately large and it is not possible to divert large funds for the purpose of education. For a long time the British Government had adopted the view that the colonies should be self-sufficient in their expenditure and this meant that only small sums were available for education. Naturally the colonial Governments felt that it was cheaper to subsidise voluntary societies (mostly Church Missions) in running the school system and only in a few places did they set up completely Government-managed schools. Though the number of schools and the number of students increased, the total picture at the beginning of the World War II was and still is a rather dismal one.

Then came World War II and the revolutionary changes in Government in the post-war period. Many of the colonies have

become either completely independent or near independent. Now Africans are free to live and lead their lives in their own way.

What exactly, however, does the future hold for the new African States? The absence of an efficient civil service and an efficient administrative machinery and the too-rapid transfer of power to indigenous peoples who had not developed strong political traditions have led to conditions of political instability in many of the territories. While conditions in present or former British Colonies are not so bad as in the former French or Belgian territories, political stability has still to be achieved in these areas.

The economies of these areas are still primitive. National income is still small. Teacher training institutions and the number of schools are pitifully inadequate. If independence means the setting up of armed forces and larger administrations than existed in the past without a correspondingly large increase in the economic activity of the area, this would even mean that in the near future, a much smaller proportion of the national resources would be available for social welfare activities such as education.

The reviewer thinks that it is here that the new international agencies such as the United Nations, Unesco and the International Bank and advanced nations such as the United Kingdom and the United States should step in and extend a helping hand to the rising generation in Africa. They should implement schemes for improving and increasing the number of schools, teacher-training institutions and the school plants in the various territories. Economic planning as well as educational planning in underdeveloped countries cannot be fast at the present day due to the shortage of economic resources and trained personnel. It is this gap that the advanced nations will have to fill up. The author has given an indication of the help that will be available from Britain in this direction.

The author has drawn attention to some problems which need only minor consideration in this review, viz., the absence of a lingua franca in some areas, the education of women, the question of aid to voluntary societies propagating education in some of these colonies, the question whether fees are to be charged to pay for the education of children and other problems. Each of these problems will have to be solved according to the nature of the local conditions in each territory and no generalisation is possible. The author has made a passing reference to the increase in wealth which has resulted from a higher level of economic activity. This reviewer feels that the author is too optimistic here. Most African exports were and continue to be raw materials whose prices are subject to wide fluctuations. Further production and foreign trade are very much under the control and ownership of foreign firms and only a small proportion of the increase in national income arising out of a higher level of economic activity will be available to the African national governments.

The author, with his considerable experience in the African territories, has adopted a sympathetic attitude in discussing the question of education in Africa. He has managed to tell a little about almost every problem that is facing the African people. He has not suggested solutions because there are no absolutely correct answers for the varied problems faced in each of these territories. But he has posed the questions. It is for the educationists in the advanced nations to help the African territories in raising and improving their standards in order that a more prosperous community may emerge. For the emergence of such a community, there is a price to be paid. And if such emergence is to be accelerated at a fast pace, the cost will have to be paid, at least in the earlier stages, by the advanced nations. Now the statesmen, the economists and statisticians have to take up and push the educationists forward in their mission.

This book is recommended to all readers

who are in charge of policy-making in the sphere of education.

NAGAMANI

Constitutional Government in India, by M. V. Pylee; Published by Asia Publishing House, Bombay; 1960; pp. 745; price Rs. 32.

Constitutional Government in India is a monumental study of the political background of the country, growth of constitutionalism since the days of the East India Company to the establishment of the Constituent Assembly, the drafting of fundamental law of independent India, the complex mechanics of Government machinery and working of the Constitution during the last ten years.

The author gives a graphic account of the tremendous task which confronted the Indian Constitution makers who had to protect the rights and interests of the minorities while safeguarding the essential unity of the nation, had to relate the form of the Constitution to the form of the Administration prevalent in the country. In the event, provisions relating to the judiciary had to be covered under Constitutional law rather than ordinary law and the doctrine of separation of powers received a new interpretation in India.

The book provides a scholarly survey of the six basic principles underlying the Constitution, popular sovereignty with adult franchise; Fundamental Rights which are justiciable and Directive Principles of the State Policy which are non-justiciable; judicial independence; federalism with its basic objective of unity in diversity, devolution in authority and decentralization in Administration; and parliamentary government with the continuous responsibility of the Executive to the Legislature and a Cabinet which although a creature of the Parliament becomes a creature which leads its creator. The author makes an incisive analysis of some special features of the Indian Constitution—its Federal system in

normal times while designed to work as a unitary system in times of war, insurrection or breakdown of administrative machinery; single citizenship with common civil and political rights and federal system; single system of judiciary with uniformity in fundamental laws, civil and criminal, under a dual federal polity; creation of All-India services without simultaneously depriving the States of their right to constitute their own civil services; and finally the office of the Comptroller and Auditor-General as an independent external check upon the freedom of the Government in its financial policy, procedure and dealings.

The author gives an illuminating exposition of the various fundamental rights and Directive principles of State's policy, with copious reference to use law. One special feature of the former is that the right to constitutional remedies is itself made a fundamental right. This is in accordance with British jurisprudence which insists that there can be no right unless the Constitution provides a remedy that makes the right real.

He says that the Fundamental Rights provide no remedy to a citizen against an oppressive legislative majority.

Referring to the First and Fourth Amendments to the Constitution, the first dealing with the freedom of speech and the fourth with the right to property, the author observes that it is necessary to reconcile the freedom of the individual with the planned development of society and that the amendments should be viewed against the socioeconomic developments in the country. The author rightly draws pointed attention to the heavy cost involved in moving the court and observes that effective enforcement of Fundamental Rights will become possible only when justice becomes cheap, simple and speedy. In regard to Directive Principles of State Policy, the author refers to Prime Minister Nehru's statement that where there was a conflict between a Fundamental Right and a Directive Principle, the latter should prevail and to the fact that to

translate this policy, the First, Second and Fourth Amendments of the Constitution were effected.

There is one serious mistake on p. 120 where the author says that Mahatma Gandhi had described the Cripps proposals as a "post-dated cheque on a crashing bank". It has been stated publicly by Mr. Pyare Lal, Mahatmaji's Secretary, that the last four words were a sinister fabrication attributed to him. This mistake may be rectified in an appropriate way.

The book under review constitutes, a comprehensive and illuminating survey of the history of Constitutionalism in India for the last hundred years and provides a valuable reference book on a crucial subject.

C.K.

Hindu Gods and Hidden Mysteries; by Govind Krishna Pillai; Published by Kitab Mahal, Allahabad; pp. 126; Price Rs. 4.00.

After the gradual realisation that the interpretation and evaluation of India's heritage has not had a fair and square deal at the hands of the foreign scholars, either because of their psychological make-up or political prejudice, there has been a spate of books in the recent past from the pen of India's own sons trying to give a truer and more complete picture of their history and culture. The present book *Hindu Gods and Hidden Mysteries*, the second of the series *India without Misrepresentation* by the same author, appears another attempt in that direction. In the course of about a dozen short chapters dealing with various gods and goddesses, the book purports to unfold their personalities and make them properly understood. Though the author has brought to bear upon his exposition his wide personal experience and knowledge of various religious practices prevalent in different corners of India, it is doubtful whether he has entirely succeeded in his objective.

About the origin of religion, we are told, the fear of ancestors and their worship was

responsible—a view which is no more supported than the one according to which religion, here or elsewhere, sprang from direct realisation in various natural phenomena of powers similar but superior to those of men. The whole matter is a highly controversial one, and the least one can do about it is to cease to be dogmatic. About the nature of Śiva worship, it is asserted (pp. 20—22) that the Śiva lingam is not the representation of the phallus and that innate sexual desire alone can make one see sex in lingam in Śiva worship. A little closer look at the lingams of Gudimallam and phallic representations from Indus Valley, on the basis of the finds of which, the author tries, rightly, to establish the antiquity of Śiva worship, will reveal the hollowness of the above assertions. There does not appear to be anything especially offensive in the idea that early Śiva lingams might have been the representations of phallus. That the conception was later highly idealised and the 'Lingam' as came to be worshipped later is nothing more than a 'mark' or 'symbol' to represent Śiva is accepted by all. In his attempts to unravel the mysteries of vedic gods 'Āśvins' and 'Varuna', the author contends that while the former were actually three in number, the latter was the most dreaded god of the vedic pantheon. It may be mentioned here that while the merciful aspect of Varuna is frequently expressed in R.V. and the hymns addressed to him are, in character, most ethical and devout of all, the three wheels of the chariots of Āsvins or the triple nature of other things associated with them, can be conveniently explained on the basis of constant association of their consort Sūryā. In another place (pp. 25, 26), the author appears to suggest that Puruṣa and Prakṛiti of Sāṃkhya are bound by a causal relationship—Prakṛiti—the unevolved—being the cause, and Puruṣa—the evolved—being the effect; and that the two have no separate existence. It should be kept in mind how hard Sāṃkhya fights to maintain its fundamental dualism. It might also not be easy to agree with author's derivation of certain words, e.g.,

Íśvara as ee—chara ('ee' meaning 'this', and 'chara' 'to move'), or Indra from Indu (moon) and Ra (the sun).

The book presents a viewpoint of the author, and in his own words, its best defence is that all being not equal, different persons' approach to god is bound to vary. This book is likely to provide interesting reading to serious students, but frankly, it appears unsuitable for the beginners. The get-up of the book is attractive but the text contains quite a few mistakes of transliteration (as 'Nama Śivāya' for 'Namah Śivāya' or Śākṭeya for Śākṭya) and also of proofs.

J. N. TIWARI

Human Biology, by *John Gibson*, Faber & Faber, London; 1960; pp. 222 with 76 drawings; price 12s. 6d.

A good book on human biology is a much-felt need. There are several books that are prescribed for schools under various titles, purported to be textbooks or manuals on physiology and hygiene. Most, if not all of them omit to mention the reproductive systems! Many students pass their High school examinations, even with biology as the main subject but woefully ignorant of the anatomy and physiology of reproduction. *Human Biology* by John Gibson is, therefore, a happy departure from the normal practice. As is mentioned on the dust-cover this is an elementary book on human anatomy and physiology for students and nurses.

The book is divided into 21 chapters dealing with each system separately. The chapters entitled "Man's Place in Nature", "General Principles and Basic Tissues", and "Defence Mechanisms", give the student a correct perspective and enable him to have an intelligent understanding of the subject.

The treatment of sex and reproduction is of particular interest to the reviewer. The anatomy of the sex organs has been described clearly and well but the physiological aspects appear to be sketchy and disjoint-

ed. The reviewer feels that the constitution and production of the seminal fluid and the menstrual cycle should have received more detailed treatment. Perhaps many will not agree on the inclusion of the psychological and physical aspects of the sexual act and its relation to fertilization! Nevertheless, it is gratifying to note that a book of this nature has included this much neglected aspect of human biology.

The language is clear, the style simple and the descriptions brief but precise. There are 67 line drawings which are clear and discernible! The get-up is neat and the size handy.

This neat little book can be recommended not only for nurses and other paramedical personnel but also for the intelligent layman.

B. K. RAO

Group Discussion—An Aid to Education for Citizenship, by *Meher C. Nanavaty*; Published by Indian Adult Education Association, New Delhi; pp. 128; price Rs. 3.75.

What is citizenship in a democratic society? What type of education does it require? What are the various methods through which this education can be imparted? How far is the Group Discussion method an effective educational aid? How to organise a Group Discussion? These are some of the questions which the author has endeavoured to answer in this small booklet.

The Discussion Method, which seems to be an outcome of the growing dissatisfaction with the Lecture Method, has its own superior values over the latter. Indeed the exponents of General Education in this country first realised the importance of this method as an effective medium of education, for it provided opportunities to the students for active participation in the teaching-learning situations. In the booklet under review an attempt has been made to

show how in a Social education programme, Group Discussion offers opportunities to citizens for self-expression and self-development.

The Discussion Method is, however, not without its limitations. As the author has pointed out, "Group Discussion as an educational aid contributes to the educational development of the citizens, provided it is used with discrimination and care". Group Discussion should be held in an atmosphere of informality, equality and freedom. Knowledge of the method of working with groups

and extensive preparation are essential requisites for the successful working of the programme. Again, Group Discussion alone is not enough to fulfil the aims of Social education. It has to be supplemented by other effective aids to education.

The present publication, besides having a useful index and a bibliography, ends with a few Case Records of Group Discussion on current social topics, that should be interesting and useful to a social group worker.

ABUL HASAN

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OUR NEXT ISSUE

The special theme of the Spring 1961 issue of THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY would be **Teaching**, that would include the teaching of special subjects as well as various aspects of Teacher education in India and abroad.





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